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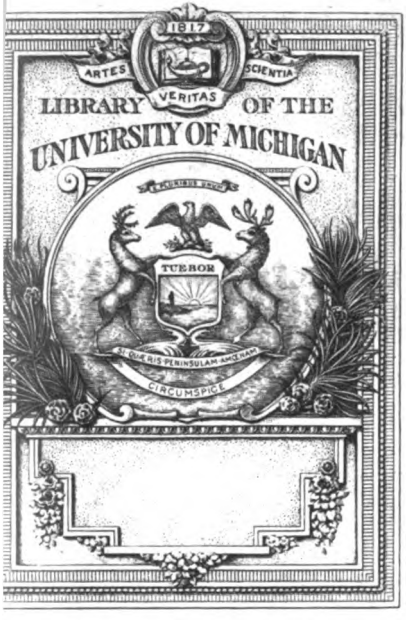

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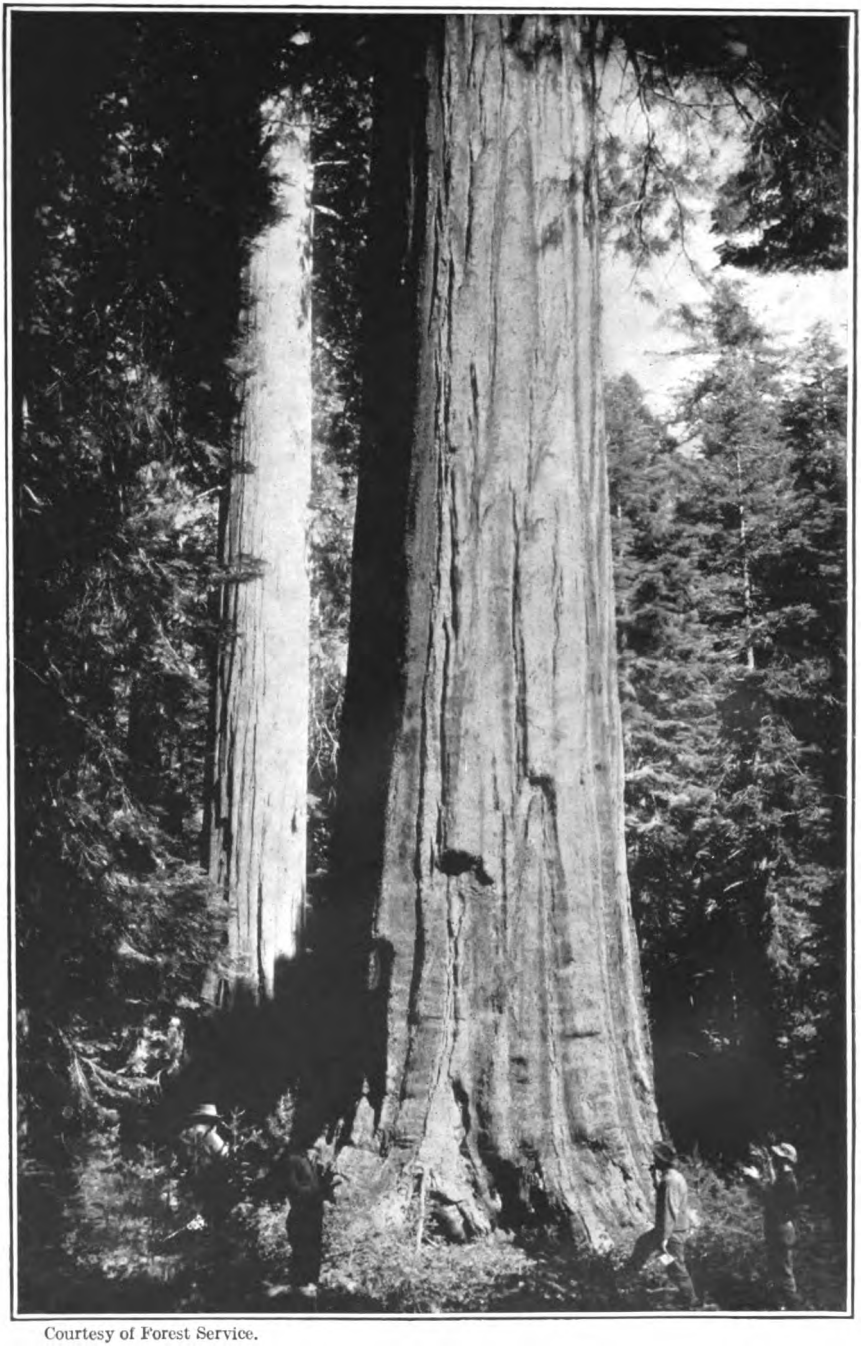

Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 1.—CALIFORNIA-REDWOOD TREE.

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 67

THE EXPORT LUMBER TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES

By

EDWARD EWING PRATT
Formerly Chief, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce

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1918

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General

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, April 25, 1918.

SIR: There is submitted herewith a report on the export lumber trade of the United States by Edward Ewing Pratt, formerly Chief of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. The report describes the present rather haphazard system of exporting lumber, points out its shortcomings, and makes some very practical suggestions as to methods of developing the lumber trade. The discussion is especially timely and should prove of material assistance to the lumber industry in view of the apparently exceptional opportunity to sell lumber in foreign countries immediately after the war.

For assistance in the preparation of this report special acknowledgment is made to over 40 firms and individuals who filled out questionnaire blanks and returned them to the Bureau, at considerable effort and expense. Thanks are also given to the Forest Service for much advice and assistance, particularly for numerous illustrations and maps, and to the lumber associations and lumber selling companies for their frequent and generous response to inquiries. Much of the material presented was compiled by Axel Oxholm, now a trade commissioner investigating lumber conditions in the Scandinavian countries and Finland, and by William Parker, then chief of the research section of the Bureau.

Respectfully,

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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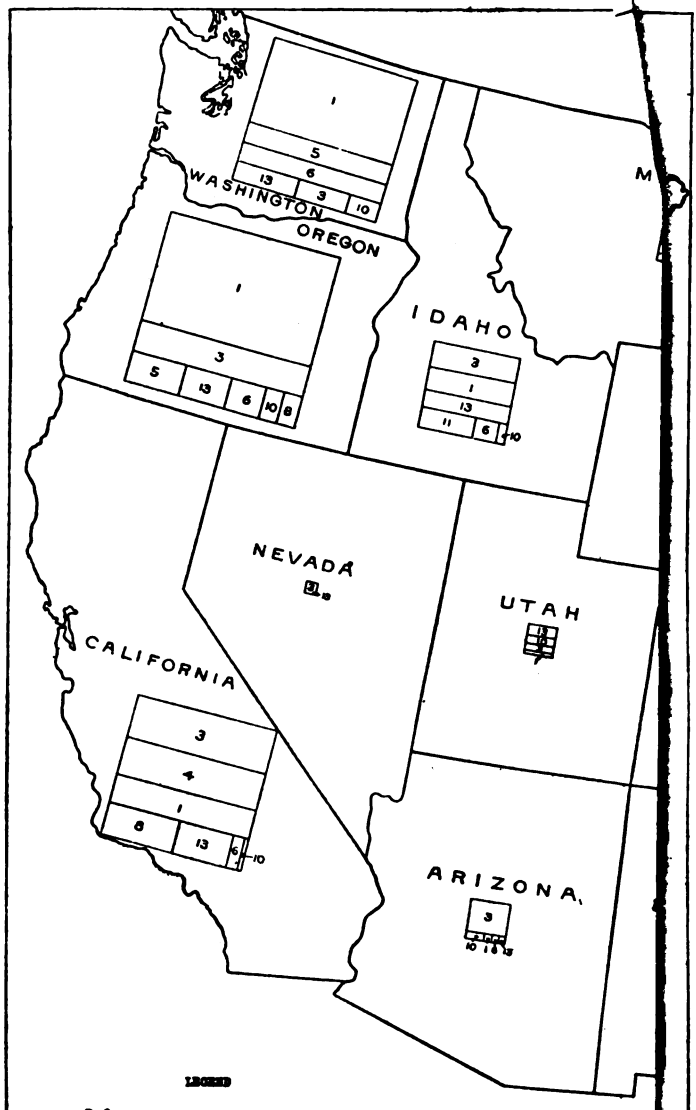

LEGEND

Ref. No.	Species	Stand (Billion feet)
1	Douglas fir	718.4
2	Southern yellow pine	292.7
3	Western yellow pine	234.9
4	Redwood	101.9
5	Western hemlock	92.0
6	Western cedar	91.2
7	Cypress	44.3
8	Sugar pine	54.6
9	Eastern hemlock	65.6
10	Spruce	116.5
11	Western white pine	80.8
12	White and Norway pine	44.1
13	All other conifers	207.3
14	Hardwoods	548.7
	Total	2826.0

The stand shown in Virginia, N Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Texas is only that included in yellow pine belt.

= 100 BILLION

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THE EXPORT LUMBER TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

INTRODUCTION.

This study of the American export trade in timber and lumber considers the subject in three parts: First, the present export trade and the methods by which it is conducted; second, the faults of the present system; third, ways of improving the present system. Part I is descriptive merely; Part II emphasizes shortcomings, but only in order that they may be the more generally recognized and the more quickly remedied—a process in which, it is hoped, the suggestions outlined in Part III will prove of value. The reconstruction that will be necessary in the devastated areas of Europe presents an unparalleled opportunity to the lumber trade, and the lumber trade will be able to utilize this opportunity to the best advantage if it first reconstructs itself.

PART I.—METHODS OF MARKETING AMERICAN LUMBER FOR EXPORT.

AMERICAN LUMBER RESOURCES.

The original forest area of this country has been estimated at 850,000,000 acres, of which some 545,000,000 acres remain. The large virgin stands remaining consist chiefly of various species of hardwoods in the central and southern hardwood regions, the yellow pine along the South Atlantic and the Gulf Coasts, and the Douglas fir, spruce, and cedar of the far Northwest, with smaller stands of redwood, California sugar and white pine, western yellow and Idaho white pine in the Inland Empire region, white pine in northern Minnesota and Wisconsin, and spruce in Maine.

Even now the United States stands second only to Canada in forest wealth, or third in the world if European and Asiatic Russia be counted together. The following table shows the acreage of forests in the principal countries of the world, according to figures compiled by the Forest Service:

Countries.	Acres.	Countries.	Acres.
EUROPE.		AFRICA.	
Austria-Hungary	53,000,000	Central Africa	224,000,000
Finland	53,000,000	Madagascar	25,000,000
France	24,000,000	All other	10,000,000
Germany	35,000,000	Total Africa	259,000,000
Norway	17,000,000		
Russia in Europe	465,000,000	AMERICA.	
Sweden	49,000,000		
All other	54,000,000	Alaska	107,000,000
Total Europe	750,000,000	Canada	799,000,000
		Mexico	25,000,000
ASIA.		South America	528,000,000
India	149,000,000	United States	545,000,000
Japan	58,000,000	West Indies	43,000,000
Philippines	49,000,000	Total America	2,047,000,000
Russia in Asia	348,000,000		
All other	7,000,000	Grand total	3,800,000,000
Total Asia	611,000,000		
Australasia	133,000,000		

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In the United States railroad, shipbuilding, general-construction, and wood-using industry requirements have consumed tens of billions of feet. Thousands of square miles of timbered lands have been cut over. A huge industrial plant of 49,000 sawmills and their accessory equipment has been built up, of which the great majority have cut for home consumption only. Some mills favorably situated near the seacoast have devoted themselves to the export trade as a natural outlet for their product. Out of a total cut of some 40,000,000,000 feet, the annual exports of lumber from the United States amount normally to about 3,000,000,000 board feet, or 8 per cent of the total and the equivalent in quantity of the turnover of the Chicago market in 1916. Although some lumber has been exported ever since the early colonial days, this trade has not developed in proportion to that in many other raw materials. During the last 60 years the agricultural and industrial expansion of this country has been so rapid and the consequent domestic demand for lumber so enormous that lumbermen have had all they could do to supply merely the local needs, which have, of course, been particularly great in the wide prairie regions of the Middle West.

The following figures, compiled by the Forest Service, show the amount of the principal species of lumber sawed in the United States in 1913:

	M feet.
Yellow pine	14,839,363
Douglas fir	5,556,096
Oak	3,211,718
White pine	2,568,636
Hemlock	2,319,982
Western pine	1,258,528
Cypress	1,097,247
Spruce	1,046,816
Maple	901,487
Red gum	772,514
Yellow poplar	620,176
Redwood	510,271
Chestnut	505,802
Larch	395,273
Birch	378,739
Beech	365,501
Cedar	358,444
Basswood	257,102
Elm	214,532
Cottonwood	208,938
Ash	207,816
Hickory	162,980
Sugar pine	149,926
Tupelo	120,420

PRESENT STATUS OF AMERICAN LUMBER INDUSTRY.

In a recent study entitled, "Some Public and Economic Aspects of the Lumber Industry," Mr. William B. Greeley, Assistant Forester of the United States, has pointed out that with the gradual slowing up of the process of settling the fertile tracts of the country and the increasing use of substitutes, the demand for lumber since 1907 not only has ceased to advance but has fallen off from some 46,000,000,000 feet in that high-water year to less than 40,000,000,000 feet. This eventuality was evidently not discounted by the industry, if its condition before the recent house, factory, and shipbuilding boom can be taken

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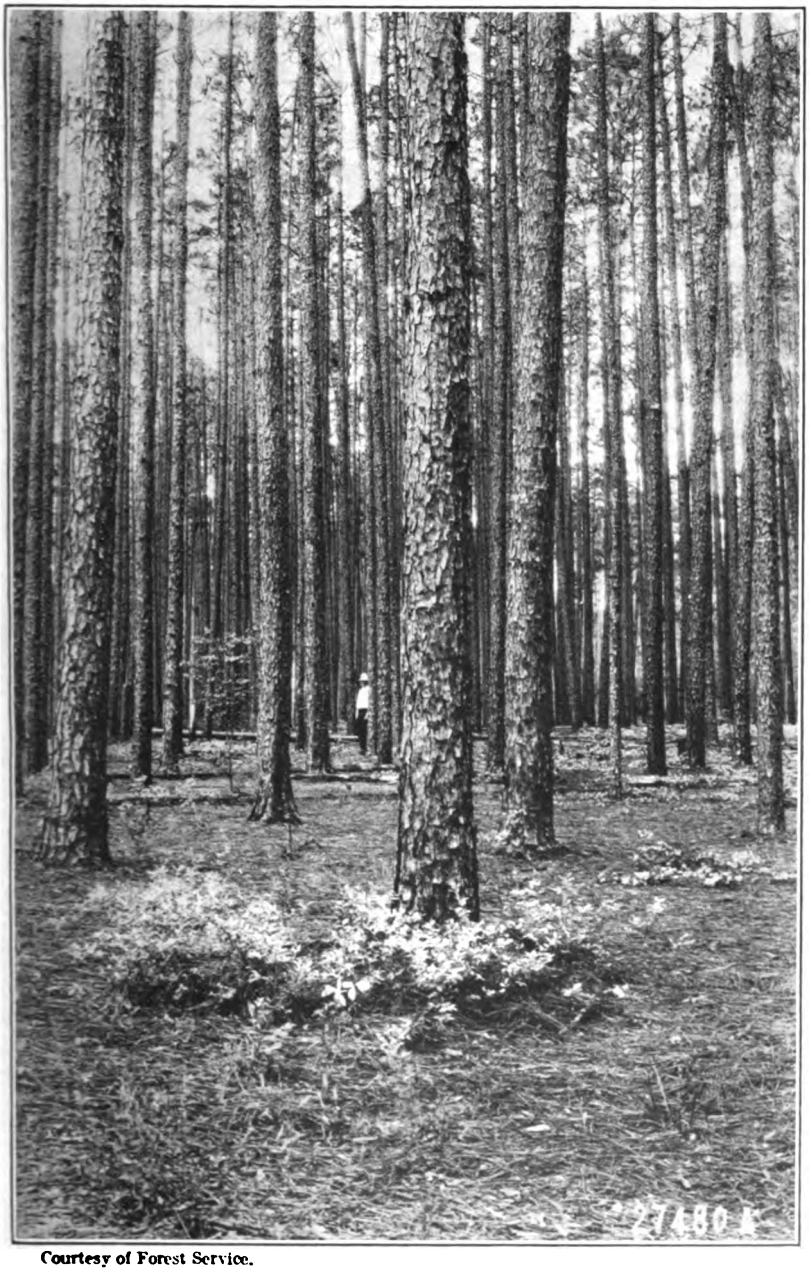

Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 3.—SIXTY TO SEVENTY YEAR OLD STAND OF LONG-LEAF YELLOW PINE.

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Courtesy of S. T. Dana, Forest Service.

FIG. 4.—EIGHTY-YEAR-OLD SCOTCH-PINE FOREST ON WEST COAST OF NORWAY.

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as an index. Not only had plant capacity been increased far beyond the domestic market requirements (it has been estimated as high as

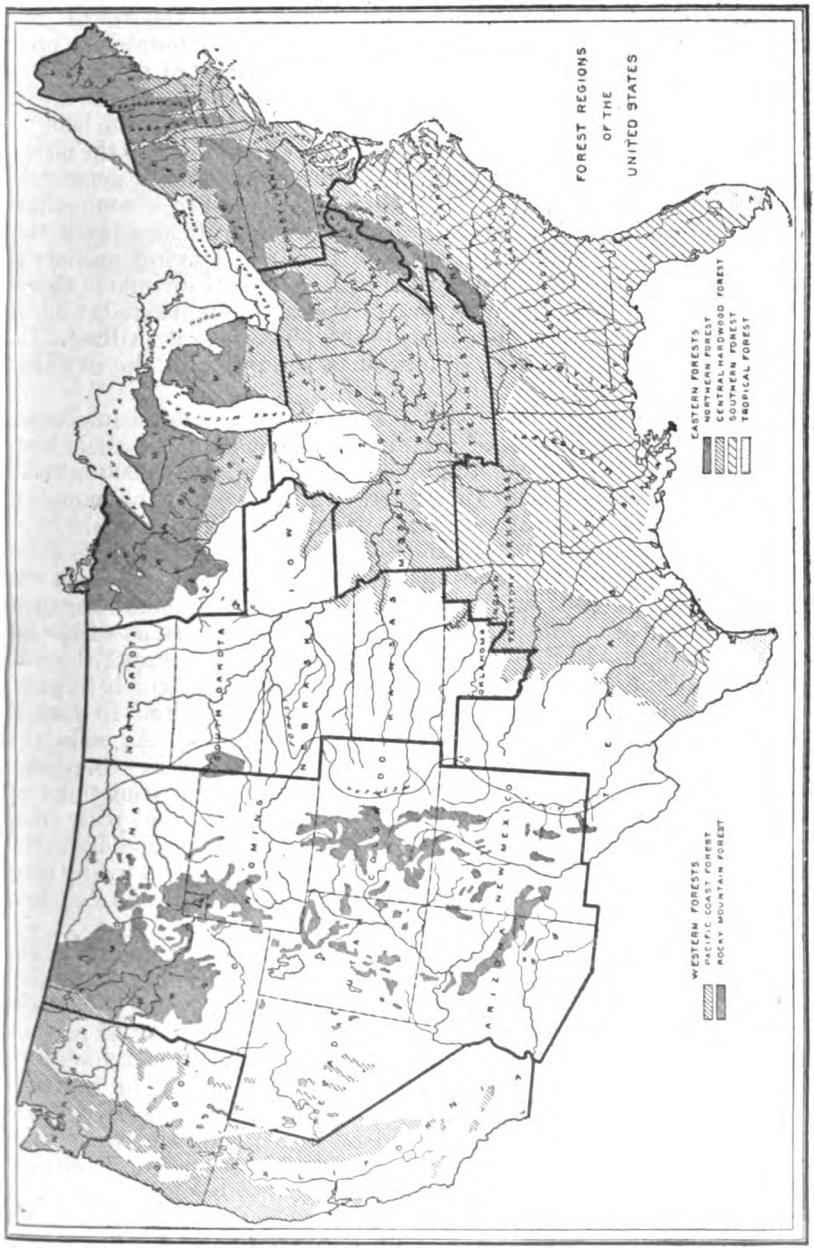

FIG. 5.

120,000,000,000 feet) but timber holdings far beyond the needs of the immediate future had been acquired, partly for speculative purposes. Furthermore, many mills and much timber had been mortgaged, the

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bonded debt of the industry as a whole running into tens of millions. In order to meet maturing obligations of interest, amortization charges, taxes, etc., many operators were forced to liquidate their timber almost regardless of price and the state of the market, and produced only the upper grades of lumber in order to obtain any profit at all. In many sections sawmill operators contracted to cut parcels of timber within a specified time, timber left on the tract at the expiration of the time limit to be forfeited to the owners of the land. It often happened thus that the operator threw the lumber on the market at any price to avoid a greater loss, thereby causing a general decline of prices throughout his section. To meet his competition, other manufacturers had to cut prices and, to operate at a profit, they also utilized only the best material in the tree, leaving millions of feet of the lower grades in the woods. It has been estimated that in this country only about 40 per cent of the tree is marketed, while in Germany, for instance, 96 per cent of the felled tree is utilized. The same wasteful methods were practiced in the mills, in the dry kilns, and in merchandising.

Efforts have been made from time to time to combine lumbermen as producers in other lines of activity have consolidated their interests, but owing to the great number of owners of the 49,000 sawmills and the immense reserves of timber greatly in excess of the immediate demand, together with the ease with which a small mill could be installed, such attempts to regulate and raise or even stabilize prices have not been successful. This lack of cooperation has combined with the heavy bonded debt of the industry to render it unable to adapt itself consistently or effectively to the changed conditions of the last 20 years in the world lumber market. Unrestricted competition necessarily resulted in periods of prolonged depression, which in an industry already handicapped by overexpansion resulted in turn in hundreds of mills curtailing or ceasing operations. As soon as a slight upturn in prices occurred, these mills, perhaps in other hands and less encumbered, would resume operations and sometimes increase production, so that the market was again flooded with cheap lumber. The fluctuating course of mill prices over a period of years—more fluctuating, perhaps, for so long a period than prices in any other important industry—stands as testimony to the conditions that have been described.

Lumber stock that could not be sold on the domestic market at any price was offered for export, and the low prices accepted for lumber at the export points are illustrative of the necessity that forced the sales. It is a mistake, however, to picture the industry as a whole (some exceptions will be referred to later) as active in merchandising for export even the surplus stock unsalable at home. The initiative came from the foreign buyers, who, attracted by the bargain prices at which even the highest grades could be purchased, sent their ships to American ports and bought for cash at the lowest f. o. b. or even mill prices. The manufacturers, stimulated into keener competition, sold at the buyers' prices and took no interest in the future adventures of their products. A few mills, favorably situated for export, have specialized in cutting export stock and have paid more attention to a permanent export trade. Some mills that had succeeded through many years of persistent work in establishing a fairly satisfactory market abroad have been constantly handicapped in their efforts by

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Courtesy of Forest Service.
FIG. 6.—Long-leaf-pine (*Pinus palustris*) region.

Courtesy of Forest Service.
FIG. 7.—Short-leaf-pine (*Pinus echinata*) region.

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the indiscriminate dumping of other mills into their territory whenever conditions seemed favorable. On the whole, the lumber export market has been a buyer's market quite as much as has the domestic market.

In the past the American lumberman has devoted most of his energy to overcoming the physical obstacles of his business. He has been an efficient logging engineer and an ingenious sawmill operator, but he has consistently neglected the marketing of his product. His hope of salvation from the continuing results of this neglect has been the increasing scarcity and the rising price of accessible stumpage. Instead of assigning the selling to a staff of experts who specialized in that field, he has usually undertaken to handle it himself. This policy may often bring misfortune even in the domestic market, but it is nothing less than disastrous in dealing with foreign countries, where conditions are strange and call for careful study and experience. If unsuccessful in a first unconsidered attempt to export direct rather than through a middleman, a manufacturer is frequently led to believe that there is nothing in the export business but trouble. Yet one of the most successful American lumber exporters recently said, "There is less trouble with one cargo for export than with three carloads for the domestic market, and the prices are generally better than those obtained at home." The lack of merchandising system, the ignorance of the conditions in foreign markets, and the expensive methods employed account in large part for the small percentage of lumber exported and the low prices as a rule obtained for it, considering its comparative value to the foreign user. When the timber owners and lumbermen of this country thoroughly appreciate the superiority of American lumber to foreign species they can scarcely fail to realize the advantage of an organized export marketing system and the necessity of taking greater care of the country's forest resources. It is even more desirable that the producers should obtain the full value of their exported products in competition with the inferior goods of foreign countries and in the face of powerful buying syndicates than that they should simply continue to increase their exports under the prevailing methods.

The last few years have witnessed the beginning of a reconstruction in the lumber business. Many small mills have been forced out of the industry by the long periods of depression, and huge mills have been built to manufacture in quantity at low unit cost. The smaller and more accessible timber tracts have been cut out. Stumpage has accumulated in fewer and stronger hands, and a more consistent sales policy has consequently been adopted. Mr. Greeley, of the Forest Service, says in the publication before mentioned, "Notwithstanding the acute character of many of the[se] difficulties [of the industry], the very facing of them is of undoubted benefit to the lumber industry and an experience which sooner or later it was bound to undergo. It is forcing the industry to shake itself together, to eliminate its unsoundness, and to improve its service to the public."

AMERICAN LUMBER EXPORTS.

While the production of lumber in the United States has slowly declined from the record cut in the calendar year 1907 of 46,000,000,000 board feet to 44,000,000,000 in 1913, 40,500,000,000 in 1914,

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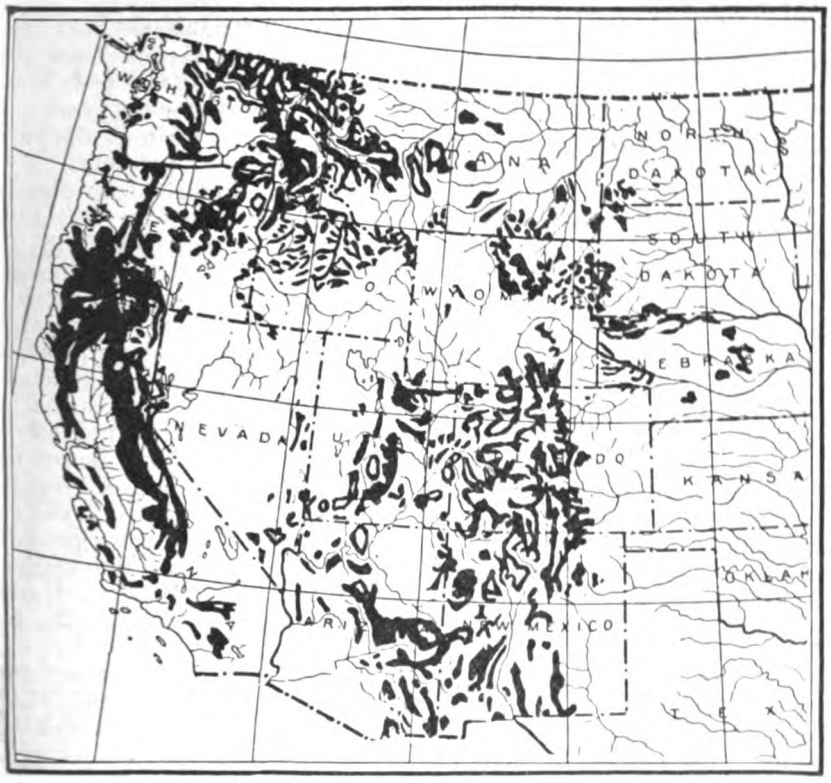
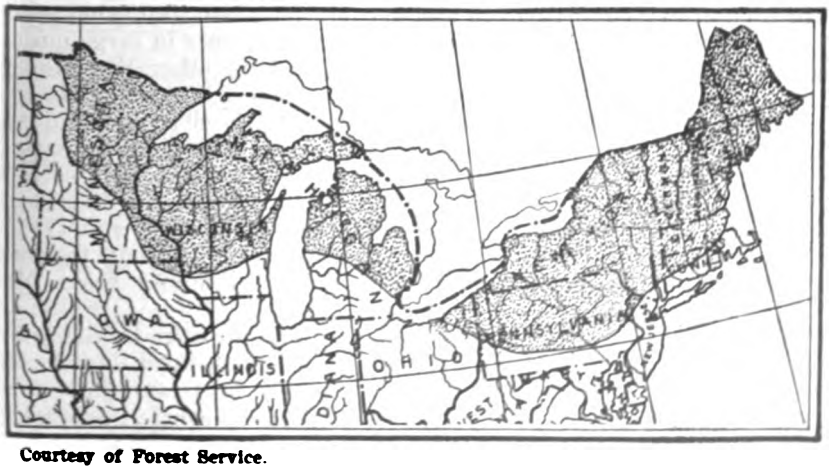


Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 8.—Western-yellow-pine (*Pinus ponderosa*) region.



Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 9.—Norway-pine (*Pinus resinosa*) region.

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and 38,000,000,000 in 1915, the exports of lumber (including logs and timber) gradually increased each year from 1,920,698,000 board feet in 1909 to 3,452,641,000 board feet in 1913, the largest total ever reached, falling to the next largest amount, 2,996,672,000 feet, in the year ended June 30, 1914. Thus the lumber exports for the years 1913 and 1914 were about 8 per cent of the lumber cut, while in the years 1909 and 1907 the proportion ranged from 4½ to 5½ per cent.

The value of the production of sawmills, independent planing mills, and wooden-box factories, totaled in the calendar year 1914, the latest census year for manufactures, approximately $872,485,000 (figure obtained by adding "values added by manufacture" in planing mills and box factories to the total value of the sawmill output), while the total value of wood and wood manufactures exported in the calendar year 1914 (including firewood and wood pulp, which were, however, of little importance) was $74,965,170, a considerable decline from the $114,777,513 of the preceding calendar year. This decline was due to the outbreak of war during the latter part of the year, as the value of the exports for the last fiscal year before the war, ended June 30, 1914, was $115,704,777, the highest recorded twelvemonth total, and almost exactly 5 per cent of the total exports of domestic merchandise. The exports of woods and its products in the fiscal year ended June 30, 1913, were exceeded in value by those of only six other products; namely, raw cotton, iron and steel, meat and dairy products, copper and its manufactures, breadstuffs, and mineral oils.

The greater part of the wood exports has consisted in every year of boards, planks, and scantlings, the value of which was $57,781,467 in the fiscal year 1914, $25,000,000 in 1915, and about $28,000,000 in 1916. Exports of logs and hewn and sawed timber amounted to over $12,000,000 in value in 1914, dropped to less than $4,000,000 in 1915, and rose to nearly $5,000,000 in 1916. The logs exported in largest amounts were long-leaf pine, Douglas fir, and the more valuable hardwoods, and the timber consisted chiefly of long-leaf pine.

By far the greatest amount of any species of lumber exported goes under the head of southern yellow pine. It is chiefly long-leaf pine but includes also short-leaf, loblolly, rosemary, slash, and other yellow pines. This material, especially long-leaf pine, goes in large quantities to Europe, chiefly England, to Cuba and the other West Indies, to the east coast of South America, and to eastern Canada. The true long-leaf pine is a hard, strong, durable wood used for general construction and was one of the American woods of which the exports increased in 1916. The increase in 1916 exports was even greater in the case of spruce, owing to its special suitability for airplane stock. The exports rose from about $500,000 each year in 1914 and 1915 to over $1,500,000 in 1916. Clear spruce stock comes largely from the Pacific coast forests of Oregon and Washington and from West Virginia and Maine.

The Douglas fir from Oregon and Washington leads all species except long-leaf pine in the quantity annually shipped, but American oak, owing to its higher cost, exceeds it greatly in export value. Douglas fir is a strong, hard, serviceable conifer, procurable in great quantities and in immense sizes. It goes chiefly to Aus-

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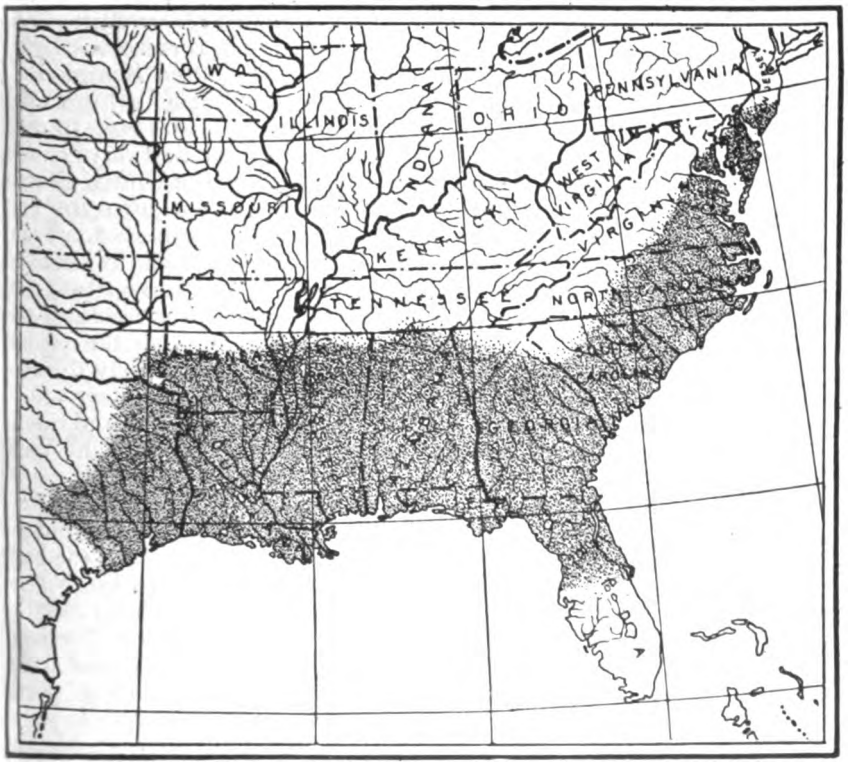
tralia, South Africa, Mexico, the west coasts of South and Central America, and the Orient. Shipments have also been made to northern and eastern South America and have been increasing to European points. Exports of this wood have fallen off since the war to a greater extent than any other, the value of exports ranging from $8,700,140 in 1914 to less than $3,000,000 in 1916. The latest figures, however, show that the export trade in Douglas fir is on the increase.

Oak also declined sharply from over $10,000,000 in 1914 to slightly over $4,500,000 in 1916. This wood, which is famed over the world



Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 10.—Loblolly-pine (*Pinus taeda*) region.

for its strength, durability, and suitability for fine furniture, grows all through the central United States, coming in commercial quantities from farms and woodlots from the Atlantic Coast to the great Western plains. It is exported to all parts of the world, chiefly to the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, and Canada.

Cypress, which is noted for its durability, moves at high prices to Canada, the West Indies, and Europe. Exports of this wood declined in value from $420,000 in 1914 to $366,000 in 1916. Exports of red gum, a much admired furniture wood taking a satinlike polish, have also declined greatly. It goes chiefly to Cuba, Spain, and the United Kingdom. These two woods, found in commercial quantities exclusively in the Southern States and usually in swampy soil,

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have come to the front comparatively recently, both being widely advertised for interior finish and sold at rising prices.

Redwood, which is another famous specialty wood and the greatest competitor of cypress in point of durability, grows only in the so-called fog belt of northwestern California and is exported chiefly to Australia. Exports have fallen off since the war started, and the figures for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1917, show a heavy decrease. It is used for general construction and interior finish, and for purposes requiring resistance to moisture and decay.

Exports of poplar, which declined from nearly $1,500,000 in 1914 to less than $1,000,000 in 1915, increased to over $1,000,000 in 1916. This species comes from the same territory as oak, furnishes a light, soft wood, and is exported almost wholly to the United Kingdom.

Like poplar, the exports of white pine declined from a high total of over $1,500,000 in 1914 to about $600,000 in 1915, and rose to over $1,000,000 in 1916. White pine has been from the earliest days one of the best-known and most largely exported woods in the United States, though in late years the depletion of the supply has cut down its commercial importance. Formerly it grew in close virgin stands from Maine, New York, and Pennsylvania west to Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, the New England, Adirondack, and Lake State districts furnishing the most timber. Every year the proportion of the supply from the virgin forests decreases, and that from the second and third growth stands increases. It is a white, soft, fairly durable wood with a wide range of uses from packing boxes to pattern stock. It goes chiefly to the United Kingdom and Canada, to Cuba and South America; in the early colonial days it went to England and the West Indies.

In former days lumber was exported chiefly from Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Norfolk, Newport News, and near-by points. Now, though thousands of feet still move through these cities, the bulk of the lumber exports goes from the Gulf and Pacific coast ports; firs, Sitka spruce and other spruces, and cedar are shipped from Seattle, Tacoma, and other Puget Sound points, as well as from Portland and Columbia River ports, while redwood and the white and sugar pines move from San Francisco and northern California ports. Long-leaf pine, short-leaf pine, oak, gum, and cypress move in great volume from Galveston, Port Arthur, New Orleans, Gulfport, Mobile, Pensacola, Jacksonville, Brunswick, Norfolk, Newport News, and adjacent points. Poplar, short-leaf pine, oak, and eastern spruce are also exported in quantities through Brunswick (except spruce), the Virginia ports, and Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. The main gateways into Canada are Detroit and Port Huron, Mich., through which southern pine and oak and other American hardwoods move in quantities.

The following table shows the quantity of logs, timber, and lumber of various kinds, and of joists and scantlings exported from the different customs districts of the United States during the year ended June 30, 1913:

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Customs districts.	Logs and round timber.				Timber.		
	Hickory.	Oak.	Walnut.	All other.	Hewn.	Sawed pitch pine.	All other sawed timber.
	1,000 feet.	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*
Baltimore, Md	1,408		2,396				
New York, N. Y			274	1,133			
Norfolk and Portsmouth, Va		459	929	3,216			
Philadelphia, Pa			5,232				
Galveston, Tex	416		2,066	3,721		8,330	2,502
New Orleans, La	4,602	773	1,597	36,385	2,115	33,240	454
Saluria, Tex				5,984		8,292	3,473
Puget Sound, Wash				48,479			1,060
Detroit, Mich						2,901	1,071
Duluth, Minn					608		527
Huron, Mich					843		9,628
Memphremagog, Vt						1,155	
Michigan							865
Milwaukee, Wis					1,805		
North and South Dakota							5,673
Mobile, Ala	1,433	694		3,025	14,092	104,125	
Cuyahoga, Ohio		414					
Jacksonville, Fla				971		1,447	
St. Marys, Ga				4,778			
Savannah, Ga				8,238		3,752	
Pensacola, Fla				1,626		124,767	
Minnesota				24,620			829
Montana and Idaho				2,739			
Pearl River, Miss					7,874	64,219	
Sabine, Tex					2,854	54,705	
Miami, Ohio					2,772		
Brunswick, Ga						24,040	
Apalachicola, Fla						15,979	
Arizona							2,452
All other	434	799	217	4,466	1,539	468	1,181
Total	8,293	3,139	12,711	149,381	34,502	447,420	29,715

Customs districts.	Lumber (boards, planks, and deals).						
	Cypress.	Fir.	Gum.	Oak.	White pine.	Yellow pitch pine.	Short-leaf pine.
	1,000 feet.	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*
Baltimore, Md				31,959	412		3,891
Boston and Charlestown, Mass				1,967	2,255		
Newport News, Va	191			11,487			
New York, N. Y				13,543	15,958	4,906	1,643
Norfolk and Portsmouth, Va			1,035	54,159			5,713
Philadelphia, Pa				12,075	1,406		
Galveston, Tex				1,315		24,639	
New Orleans, La	4,054		69,876	82,901		136,595	
Puget Sound, Wash		357,954			4,647		
Buffalo Creek, N. Y				3,483			
Champlain, N. Y					1,268		1,162
Detroit, Mich	4,612		5,784	25,632	2,035	52,843	
Huron, Mich	4,946		6,169	28,301			
North and South Dakota		22,096		1,624			
Mobile, Ala				5,054		99,362	
Cuyahoga, Ohio				961			
Jacksonville, Fla						13,387	
Savannah, Ga				964		2,028	5,635
Pensacola, Fla						178,315	
Minnesota		4,467		6,032			
Montana and Idaho		51,506					
Pearl River, Miss						238,969	
Sabine, Tex				1,020		68,007	
Brunswick, Ga						5,151	
Apalachicola, Fla						24,299	
Arizona					16,653		
Astoria, Oreg		78,319					
Portland, Oreg		140,274					
San Francisco, Cal		7,404			2,203		
Chicago, Ill				1,880			
Fernandina, Fla						5,013	
Tampa, Fla						8,135	
Vermont						2,728	
Corpus Christi, Tex							28,997
All other	985	3,275	1,656	3,498	2,446	5,360	476
Total	14,788	665,295	84,520	287,855	49,283	869,737	47,517

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Customs districts.	Lumber (boards, planks, and deals).					Joists and scantlings.	Total.
	All other pine.	Poplar.	Redwood.	Spruce.	All other lumber.		
	1,000 feet.	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*
Baltimore, Md	.....	2,891	.....	3,938	4,395	.....	51,290
Boston and Charlestown, Mass	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,333	.....	5,555
Newport News, Va	.....	1,359	.....	.....	699	.....	13,736
New York, N. Y	3,034	3,927	.....	3,084	5,740	.....	53,242
Norfolk and Portsmouth, Va	.....	12,657	.....	2,616	9,805	.....	90,589
Philadelphia, Pa	.....	2,333	.....	5,381	10,807	.....	37,234
Galveston, Tex	19,982	.....	.....	.....	1,154	.....	64,125
New Orleans, La	3,095	5,341	.....	.....	28,963	.....	409,991
Saluria, Tex	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,706	6,792	27,247
Puget Sound, Wash	6,183	.....	.....	2,291	5,670	.....	426,284
Buffalo Creek, N. Y	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,269	.....	12,752
Champlain, N. Y	1,672	.....	.....	.....	1,945	.....	6,047
Detroit, Mich	.....	4,331	.....	.....	27,584	2,093	128,886
Duluth, Minn	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,538	.....	3,673
Huron, Mich	37,793	2,218	.....	.....	19,978	.....	109,876
Memphremagog, Vt	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,422	.....	3,577
Michigan	.....	.....	.....	.....	17,290	.....	18,155
Milwaukee, Wis	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,960	.....	3,765
North and South Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,652	4,680	36,725
Oswegatchie, N. Y	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,259	.....	1,259
Mobile, Ala	98,966	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	326,751
Cuyahoga, Ohio	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,375
Jacksonville, Fla	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,658	17,463
St. Marys, Ga	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,778
Savannah, Ga	.....	1,306	.....	.....	.....	.....	21,923
Pensacola, Fla	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	304,708
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,295	3,836	46,079
Montana and Idaho	18,403	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	72,648
Pearl River, Miss	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	311,062
Sabine, Tex	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	126,586
Miami, Ohio	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,772
Brunswick, Ga	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	29,191
Apalachicola, Fla	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40,278
Arizona	4,578	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	23,683
Astoria, Oreg	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	78,319
Portland, Oreg	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	140,274
San Francisco, Cal	6,706	.....	14,113	689	.....	.....	31,115
Chicago, Ill	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,880
Fernandina, Fla	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,305	7,318
Tampa, Fla	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,135
Vermont	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,728
Corpus Christi, Tex	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28,997
Superior, Mich	9,595	.....	.....	.....	22,740	.....	32,335
Humbolt, Cal	.....	.....	36,579	.....	.....	.....	36,579
San Diego, Cal	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,380	1,380
All other	18,358	1,289	1,211	2,021	6,169	3,181	59,029
Total	228,365	37,652	51,903	20,020	193,373	25,925	3,261,394

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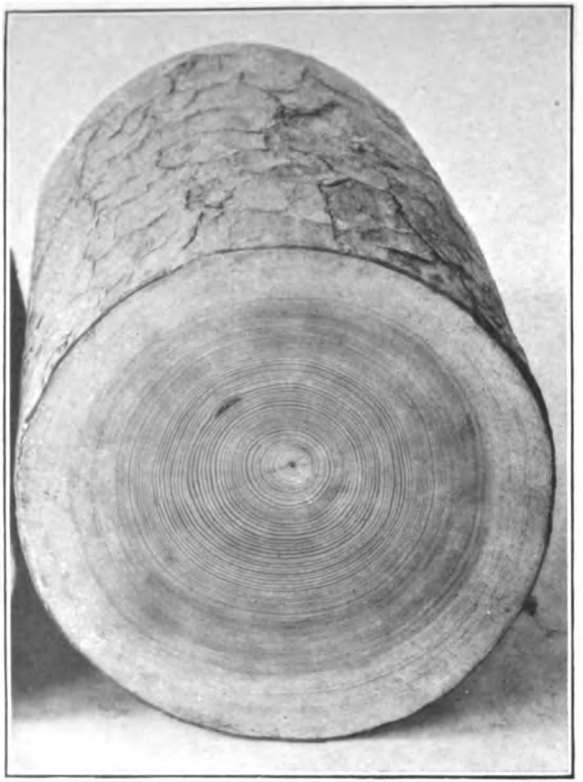

Courtesy of Southern Pine Association.

FIG. 11.—LOG SECTION OF LONG-LEAF YELLOW PINE, SHOWING EXCEPTIONALLY CLOSE GRAIN.

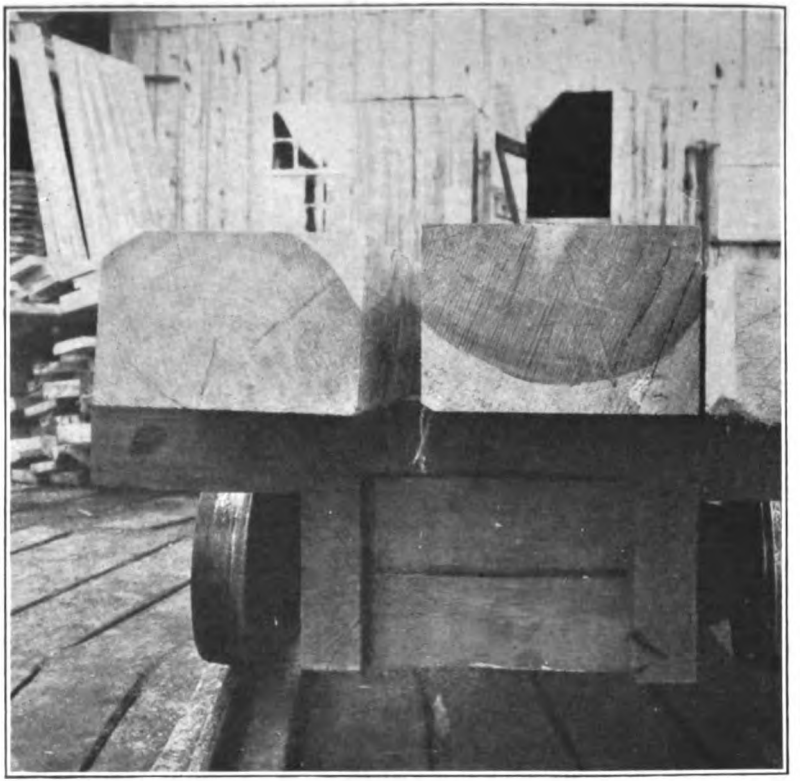

FIG. 12.—CLOSE-GRAINED SHORT-LEAF-PINE TIMBERS.

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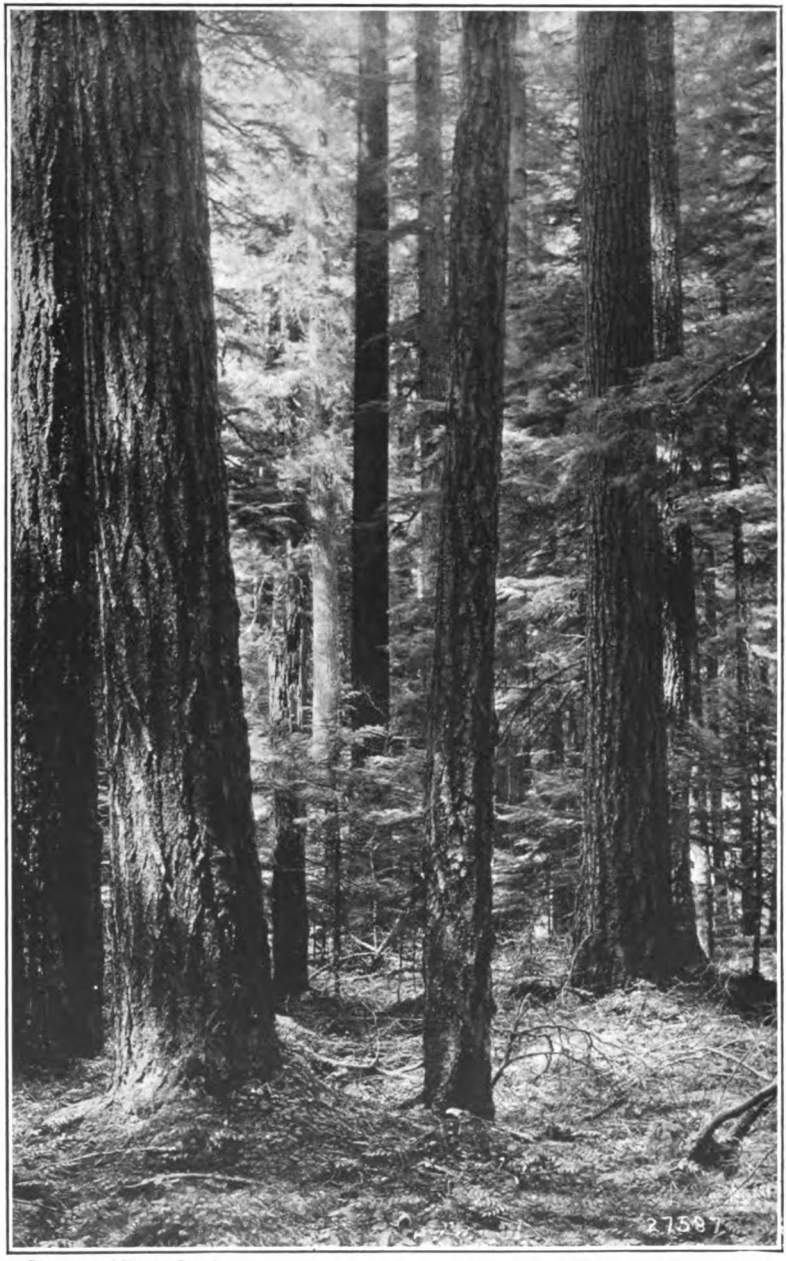

Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 13.—GOOD STAND OF DOUGLAS FIR.

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The following figures show the value of exports of sawed lumber from the United States for the fiscal years ended June 30, from 1869 to 1913:

1869	$2,817,906	1884	$7,757,156	1899	$15,031,176
1870	2,920,429	1885	6,814,248	1900	17,731,696
1871	2,764,329	1886	6,392,305	1901	20,106,242
1872	3,466,431	1887	6,854,401	1902	16,978,322
1873	4,625,863	1888	7,515,719	1903	20,965,328
1874	4,242,389	1889	9,703,219	1904	28,603,355
1875	3,693,909	1890	9,974,888	1905	24,483,214
1876	3,862,793	1891	9,916,945	1906	28,695,823
1877	5,434,922	1892	9,672,493	1907	39,861,352
1878	4,531,741	1893	9,642,599	1908	35,607,508
1879	3,292,042	1894	9,355,025	1909	29,056,579
1880	5,086,880	1895	8,860,235	1910	36,774,219
1881	6,279,541	1896	10,116,598	1911	43,756,177
1882	7,386,799	1897	13,076,247	1912	51,060,644
1883	7,582,194	1898	12,080,318	1913	61,975,919

LUMBER EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE WORLD.

In connection with the exports of wood from the United States, it may be of interest to consider the wood exports and imports of the principal countries of the world. The following table shows the quantity and value of the exports of round timber, logs, etc., sawed lumber, and semimanufactured and dressed lumber from each of the principal wood-exporting countries to the principal purchasing countries in 1913:

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Exporting countries.	Importing countries.											
	Belgium.		France.		Germany.		Italy.		Netherlands.		Spain and Canaries.	
Austria-Hungary:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—	*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*	
Softwoods			2,428	$28,800	1,621,197	$15,078,000	162,798	$1,605,000	28	$184	1,134	$8,200
Hardwoods	31	$3,300	7,635	207,700	44,388	2,026,300	10,660	332,500	770	83,500	1,345	42,400
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	331	5,600	46,048	935,000	241,268	4,334,000	774,890	13,032,000	5,776	97,000	10,338	173,800
Hardwoods	1,910	130,400	2,062	52,700	14,352	775,000	38,142	1,395,000	760	45,100	3,654	113,900
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods			40	1,200	877	24,200	896	22,900				
Hardwoods	72	5,700	2,648	176,000	4,223	300,000	1,200	73,800	119	11,500	351	1,000
Total	2,344	145,000	60,861	1,401,400	1,926,305	22,537,500	988,586	16,461,200	7,453	237,284	16,822	339,300
Finland:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	11,548	50,000	109,150	508,400	58,900	646,000	1,691	20,750	56,120	281,000	10,100	49,200
Hardwoods					463	3,000						
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods	151,800	2,903,000	312,900	6,411,000	273,400	5,045,000	137	3,200	160,750	3,088,000	100,000	2,175,000
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	14,130	215,700	1,416	20,500	12,210	182,800			18,190	290,000	2,464	36,500
Hardwoods			225	4,400								
Total	177,478	3,168,700	423,691	6,944,300	344,973	5,876,800	1,828	23,950	235,060	3,659,000	112,564	2,260,700
Germany:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	35,464	426,700	79,500	959,000			13,450	23,300	97,304	1,009,700	2,992	60,000
Hardwoods	4,083	68,000							7,867	203,700		
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	1,333	27,400	11,700	229,400			2,074	37,600	8,237	956,000		
Hardwoods	1,090	89,200	88	7,600			334	24,700	2,529	115,000		
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	1,439	133,300	100	141			740	146,100	202	156,600		
Hardwoods	166	36,400	1,408	157,300			25,300	32,000	385	97,300		
Total	43,575	781,000	92,796	1,353,441			41,898	263,700	116,524	2,538,300	2,992	60,000

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Norway:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—Softwoods	.....	.....	483	6,690	4,620	62,100	.....	.....	2,086	25,300	.....	.....
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	23,120	477,800	6,020	124,300	4,235	87,600	.....	.....	6,230	12,900	.....	.....
Hardwoods	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—Softwoods	3,523	97,700	11	284	5,680	140,900	.....	.....	4,850	117,200	5,090	140,200
Total	26,643	575,500	6,514	131,274	14,535	290,600	.....	.....	13,166	155,400	5,090	140,200
Roumania:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	.....	.....	.....	.....	11	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hardwoods	.....	.....	8	456	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	191	4,140	11,498	248,000	501	10,900	14,850	323,000	31,650	687,000	.....	.....
Hardwoods	.....	.....	127	6,700	58	3,100	150	5,300	.....	.....	.....	.....
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	.....	.....	.....	.....	13	300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hardwoods	.....	.....	11	328	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	191	4,140	11,644	255,484	583	14,350	15,000	328,300	31,650	687,000	.....	.....
Russia:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	71,900	691,100	75,700	696,500	938,300	7,090,400	8,950	166,200	206,100	1,812,200	458	4,300
Hardwoods	2,300	28,700	33,100	483,100	890,800	7,047,000	.....	.....	547,700	4,951,300	6	93
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	203,700	2,897,000	243,940	3,708,100	565,300	6,737,100	16,200	284,500	469,300	6,556,000	.....	.....
Hardwoods	15,600	134,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Hardwoods	3,300	75,900	18,800	450,600	33,473	669,400	.....	.....	4,600	55,900	.....	.....
Total	296,800	3,827,300	371,540	5,338,300	2,427,873	21,543,900	25,150	450,700	1,227,700	13,375,400	464	4,393
Sweden:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—Softwoods	.....	.....	9,400	106,900	49,000	706,900	2,030	31,000	18,900	244,400	1,100	19,400
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods	66,600	1,167,700	383,300	7,372,300	244,400	4,482,400	4,054	91,100	109,200	1,880,500	70,700	1,019,200
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	4,400	78,100	2,540	45,400	10,100	205,800	.....	.....	18,841	350,400	12,400	310,800
Hardwoods	10,050	155,500	7,000	107,900	5,400	86,200	.....	.....	4,800	74,600	.....	.....
Total	81,050	1,401,300	402,240	7,632,500	308,900	5,481,300	6,084	122,100	151,741	2,549,900	84,200	1,349,400

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Exporting countries.	Importing countries.											
	Belgium.		France.		Germany.		Italy.		Netherlands.		Spain and Canaries.	
Canada:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—	*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*	
Softwoods	50	$1,250	220	$3,600	14	$300	.....	.....	50	$800	.....	.....
Hardwoods	.....	.....	100	5,400	125	2,700	.....	.....	60	1,600	.....	.....
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	1,380	19,800	260	6,200	700	11,300	.....	.....	560	10,000	600	$14,000
Hardwoods	.....	.....	.....	.....	37	1,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Hardwoods	.....	.....	200	3,500	30	700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	1,430	21,050	780	18,700	906	16,300	.....	.....	670	12,400	600	14,000
United States:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	23,100	406,300	40,000	798,000	30,800	644,400	44,700	$855,800	60,300	1,306,300	8,200	163,000
Hardwoods	2,900	100,200	8,618	352,200	33,200	1,363,500	900	35,300	16,200	599,900	200	11,300
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	36,000	863,200	15,700	402,100	62,200	1,561,700	35,200	710,800	101,500	2,393,300	31,500	682,000
Hardwoods	42,800	1,619,800	14,460	525,800	21,500	855,600	9,100	300,300	23,700	843,300	8,300	287,400
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Hardwoods	4,600	179,400	31,500	1,425,200	14,068	619,400	10,300	528,500	25,700	1,248,200	20,100	909,300
Total	109,400	3,168,900	110,278	3,503,300	161,768	5,044,600	100,200	2,430,700	227,400	6,391,000	68,300	2,053,000
Australia:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc	.....	.....	.....	.....	184	9,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sawed lumber not manufactured	2,430	83,500	.....	.....	1,762	69,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	2,430	83,500	.....	.....	1,946	78,800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Japan:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc	95	1,900	.....	.....	10	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sawed lumber not manufactured	18,900	378,900	4,630	92,700	7,400	147,300	240	4,900	2,500	50,400	.....	.....
Total	18,995	380,800	4,630	92,700	7,410	147,500	240	4,900	2,500	50,400	.....	.....

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Exporting countries.	Importing countries.											
	United Kingdom.		United States.		Argentina.		Brazil.		Chile.		Cuba.	
Sweden:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—	*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*	
Softwoods	277,200	$1,590,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hardwoods	3,015	74,620	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods	960,600	8,615,400	.....	.....	7,134	$129,800	1,811	$40,470	.....	.....	.....	.....
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	271,400	5,889,000	.....	.....	1,837	51,200	.....	.....	572	$13,300	.....	.....
Hardwoods	12,810	50,700	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	1,525,025	16,220,020	.....	.....	8,971	181,000	1,811	40,470	572	13,300	.....	.....
Canada:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	37,100	1,066,900	904,000	$7,296,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	$600
Hardwoods	16,800	348,400	90,600	886,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	525,700	4,034,600	1,053,000	18,178,600	61,800	1,456,500	2,300	45,700	6,600	74,000	20,100	356,400
Hardwoods	340	10,000	600	13,400	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	9,130	189,300	140,700	3,309,400	20	400	.....	.....	23	400	200	2,700
Hardwoods	10,300	217,100	5,500	95,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	599,370	5,866,300	2,194,400	29,779,200	61,820	1,456,900	2,300	45,700	6,623	74,400	20,320	359,700
United States:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	211,500	4,760,500	.....	.....	3,600	80,400	850	18,800	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hardwoods	21,600	775,900	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	86,600	1,892,600	.....	.....	241,700	5,265,400	69,300	1,546,300	236,800	4,060,200	137,400	2,550,000
Hardwoods	246,700	11,782,000	.....	.....	6,600	430,500	500	17,836	1,600	100,000	150	12,100
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Hardwoods	55,500	2,474,400	.....	.....	61,200	2,374,000	1,600	75,000	500	20,400	.....	.....
Total	621,900	21,685,400	.....	.....	313,100	8,150,300	72,250	1,657,936	238,900	4,180,600	137,550	2,562,100

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Exporting countries.	Importing countries.											
	United Kingdom.		United States.		Argentina.		Brazil.		Chile.		Cuba.	
Australia:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.	*1,000 feet.* 15	$500	*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*	
Sawed lumber not manufactured	20,117	677,000			1,590	$53,300						
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber	18	1,000										
Total	20,150	678,500			1,590	53,300						
Japan:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.	20	500										
Sawed lumber not manufactured	7,400	148,000	6,300	$126,800								
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)			23,800	480,000								
Total	7,420	148,500	30,100	606,800								
Austria-Hungary:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	158	1,900										
Hardwoods	901	41,700	71	4,400	314	15,300						
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	142	2,380			8,678	145,800						
Hardwoods	3,376	239,000			752	48,200	8	$500				
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	40	1,200	5	200								
Hardwoods	120	15,800	26	5,000	19	1,000	8	600				
Total	4,737	301,980	102	9,600	9,763	210,300	16	1,100				
Finland:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	624,700	2,600,000										
Hardwoods	7,026	45,000										
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods	431,180	7,880,000										
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	93,580	1,443,000										
Hardwoods	16,060	312,700										
Total	1,172,546	12,280,700										

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Germany:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	61,311	683,200			1,458	16,400	1,390	18,000				
Hardwoods	2,544	130,400										
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	25,696	559,000					895	21,400				
Hardwoods	4,950	54,700	26	7,000								
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	3,318	432,000	11	22,300	519	52,500	73	16,000				
Hardwoods	1,040	46,100	117	16,800	36	7,300	-127	63,500				
Total	98,859	1,905,400	154	46,100	2,013	76,200	2,485	118,900				
Norway:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.— Softwoods	92,300	846,000	416	3,900								
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods	22,300	460,000					517	10,690				
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	146,200	3,833,000					330	8,520				
Hardwoods	137	8,220										
Total	260,937	5,147,220	416	3,900			847	19,210				
Russia:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	548,600	4,499,500	2,300	150,000								
Hardwoods	161,200	2,315,200										
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods	1,872,400	26,677,200	817	13,000								
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Hardwoods	30,000	649,700										
Total	2,612,200	34,141,600	3,117	163,000								

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Exporting countries.	Importing countries.													
	Canada.[a]		Peru.		Uruguay.[b]		Philippines.[c]		China.		Japan.[d]		Australia.[e]	
Norway:	*1,000 ft.*		*1,000 ft.*		*1,000 ft.*		*1,000 ft.*		*1,000 ft.*		*1,000 ft.*		*1,000 ft.*	
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods													1,825	$37,500
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—Softwoods													63,400	1,642,000
Total													65,225	1,679,500
Russia:														
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—														
Softwoods									1,400	$20,000	13,000	$85,800		
Hardwoods									616	10,200				
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods									2,100	64,400	68	1,500		
Total									4,116	94,600	13,068	87,300		
Sweden:														
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods													8,400	194,500
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—Softwoods													33,300	764,700
Total													41,700	959,200
Canada:														
Sawed lumber not manufactured—														
Softwoods					2,100	$40,800			9	275	4,400	83,500	23,000	289,200
Hardwoods													90	1,900
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—														
Softwoods													1,800	193,000
Hardwoods													600	13,000
Total					2,100	40,800			9	275	4,400	83,500	25,490	497,100

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United States:														
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—														
Softwoods	20,000	$559,200	1,500	$68,000	400	16,500	250	$5,300						
Hardwoods	86,000	1,217,750					1,200	9,200			1,000	10,000		
Sawed lumber not manufactured—														
Softwoods	333,600	6,565,800	48,400	652,700	46,000	997,200	15,700	258,400	90,000	987,200	14,400	200,000	242,600	3,883,600
Hardwoods	211,700	6,795,200	280	23,100	1,380	94,600	60	2,700	300	3,900	100	8,700	2,470	190,000
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—														
Softwoods	10,000	205,800									5	100	250	5,300
Hardwoods	50,000	1,854,500	1,400	58,500	580	24,500	170	3,600	14,000	303,000	700	16,600	5,000	96,700
Total	711,900	17,198,250	51,580	802,300	48,360	1,132,800	17,380	279,200	104,300	1,294,100	16,205	235,400	250,320	4,175,600
Japan:														
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc									33,500	666,000				
Sawed lumber not manufactured	1,000	20,900							50,000	1,000,000			12,300	247,000
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)			200	4,000			10	200	900	12,100			10	200
Total	1,000	20,900	200	4,000			10	200	84,400	1,678,100			12,310	247,200

[a] Canada also received from Germany 25,000 feet of sawed hardwood lumber, valued at $9,400.
[b] Uruguay also received from Germany 43,000 feet of semimanufactured and dressed hardwood lumber, valued at $5,700.
[c] The Philippines also received from Germany 287,000 feet of semimanufactured dressed hardwood lumber, valued at $55,900, and from Australia 62,000 feet of round timber and logs, valued at $2,200.
[d] Japan also received from Austria-Hungary 12,000 feet of round softwood timber and logs, valued at $78,000.
[e] Australia also received from Germany 71,000 feet of semimanufactured and dressed hardwood lumber, valued at $13,300.

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Exporting countries.	Importing countries.											
	Algeria and Morocco.[a]		British South Africa.		Egypt.		British India.		All others.		Total.	
Austria-Hungary:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—	*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*	
Softwoods					2,446	$25,800			226,100	$1,607,000	[b]2,016,301	[b]$18,354,962
Hardwoods	192	$9,000			143	$9,000	1	500	7,200	177,800	73,651	2,953,400
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	30,000	503,500			67,334	1,132,000	4,421	74,300	428,000	7,005,000	1,617,226	27,440,380
Hardwoods	140	5,500			128	6,900	56	4,000	21,200	854,300	86,540	3,670,500
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods									100	1,500	1,958	51,200
Hardwoods	59	4,000			19	1,446			4,800	228,000	13,664	823,846
Total	30,391	522,000			70,070	1,175,146	4,478	78,800	687,400	9,873,600	3,809,340	53,294,288
Finland:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods	24	135	13,675	$300,000	51,830	637,000					937,738	5,092,485
Hardwoods											7,489	48,000
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods	13,600	300,000			4,014	79,130					1,447,781	27,884,330
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	533	10,100	3,239	75,000							145,762	2,273,600
Hardwoods											16,285	317,100
Total	14,157	310,235	16,914	375,000	55,844	716,130					2,555,055	35,615,515
Germany:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods											293,692	3,217,600
Hardwoods											14,494	402,100
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods											49,935	1,830,800
Hardwoods											[c]9,042	[c]307,600
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods											6,402	958,941
Hardwoods											[d]28,980	[d]531,600
Total											402,545	7,248,641

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Norway:											
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—Softwoods			12	210						99,917	944,200
Sawed lumber not manufactured—Softwoods			2,360	51,100						66,607	1,261,890
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—											
Softwoods			13,040	343,200			1,365	35,400		243,489	6,358,404
Hardwoods										137	8,220
Total			15,412	394,510			1,365	35,400		410,150	8,572,714
Roumania:											
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—											
Softwoods										11	50
Hardwoods										8	456
Sawed lumber not manufactured—											
Softwoods					40,800	885,000				99,490	2,158,040
Hardwoods					381	13,400				716	28,500
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—											
Softwoods					211	3,000				224	3,300
Hardwoods										11	328
Total					41,392	901,400				100,460	2,190,674
Russia:											
Round timber, logs, hewn timber poles, etc.—											
Softwoods					30	300			51,900	429,900	1,918,638	15,646,200
Hardwoods					28	1,800			195,000	1,721,600	1,830,750	16,558,993
Sawed lumber not manufactured—											
Softwoods					1,155	18,200			220,000	4,043,200	3,594,980	51,000,200
Hardwoods											15,600	134,600
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—											
Hardwoods									11,500	198,300	101,673	2,099,800
Total					1,213	20,300			478,400	6,393,000	7,461,641	85,439,793

[a] Algeria and Morocco also received from Germany 823,000 feet of round softwood timber and logs, valued at $21,300.
[b] Includes 12,000 feet, valued at $78,000, exported to Japan.
[c] Includes 25,000 feet, valued at $9,400, exported to Canada.
[d] Includes 287,000 feet, valued at $55,900, exported to the Philippines; 71,000 feet, valued at $13,300, exported to Australia; and 43,000 feet, valued at $5,700, exported to Uruguay.

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Exporting countries.	Importing countries.											
	Algeria and Morocco.		British South Africa.		Egypt.		British India.		All others.		Total.	
Sweden:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—	*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*	
Softwoods					22,500	279,300			155,900	$2,173,800	536,030	$5,152,000
Hardwoods									2,100	50,000	5,115	124,620
Sawed lumber, not manufactured—												
Softwoods	49,300	$1,033,500	44,800	$997,000	14,680	$323,400	1,600	$46,200	263,800	4,740,800	2,230,379	32,134,270
Hardwoods									66,700	1,430,600	66,700	1,430,600
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods	3,900	81,100	25,400	613,400	2,250	48,100			14,200	268,600	401,140	8,719,900
Hardwoods											40,060	474,900
Total	53,200	1,114,600	70,200	1,610,400	39,430	650,800	1,600	46,200	502,700	8,663,800	3,279,424	48,036,290
Canada:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods			10	300					500	10,600	941,964	8,380,350
Hardwoods											107,685	1,244,700
Sawed lumber, not manufactured—												
Softwoods			8,200	146,000					23,000	406,500	1,733,709	25,173,375
Hardwoods											1,067	26,600
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods			300	5,000					5,700	133,200	157,873	3,833,400
Hardwoods									900	17,200	17,530	346,700
Total			8,510	151,300					30,100	567,500	2,959,828	39,005,125
United States:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.—												
Softwoods			6,400	160,000					71,400	1,581,700	523,000	11,424,200
Hardwoods			44	4,000					30,600	485,000	203,062	4,964,250
Sawed lumber not manufactured—												
Softwoods	800	16,700	15,400	385,200			14,700	202,000	324,400	5,908,000	2,199,900	41,984,400
Hardwoods					40	1,300			11,600	444,500	603,340	24,338,636
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)—												
Softwoods			20	1,000					8,200	365,000	18,475	577,200
Hardwoods			2,000	78,000			780	10,000	60,200	2,567,000	359,898	14,866,200
Total	800	16,700	23,864	628,200	40	1,300	15,480	212,000	506,400	11,351,200	3,907,675	98,154,886

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Australia:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.							341	11,000	1,647	120,800	a 2,249	a 143,700
Sawed lumber not manufactured			33,806	1,138,800	110	3,700	23,960	781,000	47,314	1,770,400	131,089	4,577,300
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)									556	29,200	574	30,200
Total			33,806	1,138,800	110	3,700	24,301	792,000	49,517	1,920,400	133,912	4,751,200
Japan:												
Round timber, logs, hewn timber, poles, etc.					1,600	31,600	10	200	8,400	168,400	43,635	868,800
Sawed lumber not manufactured			240	5,000	11,800	239,600	1,500	30,000	31,100	421,200	155,310	2,902,700
Semimanufactured and dressed lumber (shooks, flooring, ceiling, etc.)							23,000	460,000	3,700	77,600	51,620	1,034,100
Total			240	5,000	13,400	271,200	24,510	490,200	43,200	657,200	250,565	4,805,600

a Includes 62,000 feet, valued at $2,200, exported to the Philippines.

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LUMBER-EXPORTING METHODS.

EXPORT AGENTS AND EXPORT MERCHANTS.

At the early stage of the exportation of lumber from this country the large export mills frequently operated their own sailing vessels and were thus brought into direct contact with the importers in foreign countries. With the advent of steamships, the number of mill-owned sailing vessels decreased every year. A steamer cargo is generally considerably larger than that of a sailing vessel, requires a quicker dispatch, and involves heavy charges for demurrage. A steamer cargo frequently had to be split between two or more mills, and it became necessary to have a middleman who could bunch several orders to make up a cargo and attend to the details of clearing the steamer. It is mainly since steamers were used in carrying lumber cargoes that the export middlemen have had a strong foothold in the American lumber export trade. Some mills are exporting their products direct to foreign countries, but by far the greater part of the American lumber export trade passes through the hands of export middlemen.

The sawmill operators cutting for export generally realize that it is necessary to maintain a special sales force to handle the export business satisfactorily. Very few of them, however, are able to go to the expense of maintaining such a selling force and call upon the export middlemen to take the lumber destined for export off their hands. There are two classes of export middlemen in this country—the export agent and the export merchant. The export agent buys and sells lumber on a commission basis, and the export merchant buys the lumber outright from various mills and operates as an independent exporter. These middlemen are found in all lumber-exporting districts, but they are especially numerous on the Gulf and Pacific coasts. Their success is dependent upon a thorough knowledge of local conditions in the districts where they operate. They must be in constant personal touch with the various mills. They must know the characteristic qualities of the timber in the various sections of the country and have an intimate knowledge of the grades and quality of lumber turned out by the different mills. Only with such knowledge in hand are they in a position to place their orders to the best advantage. In case of obtaining an order containing a difficult specification they must know what mills would be in a position to fill it satisfactorily.

The export middlemen are generally called upon to submit a c. i. f. offer; that is to say, an offer including the cost of the lumber at the port of loading, ocean freight to its destination, and insurance. In obtaining freight space they may either approach a ship broker or communicate direct with a shipping concern operating regular liners to the importing country. However, the lack of direct shipping facilities from this country to foreign countries has greatly handicapped the lumber export trade. Many times, upon submitting a c. i. f. quotation, the middleman takes a chance on obtaining the freight space when the order is placed. If the market should go up in the meantime, he may have to face a heavy loss, and he may not be able to secure the necessary tonnage at all.

However, if the middlemen operate near ports with direct steamship connections with foreign countries, they are often in a better

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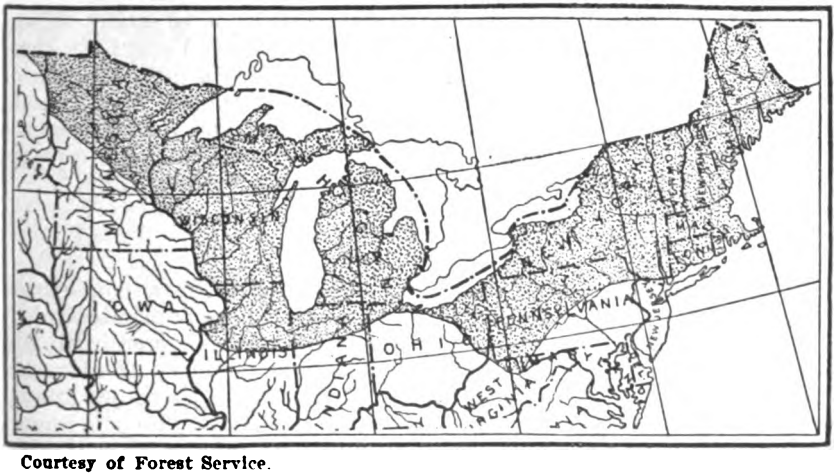
position to secure occasional cheap rates to complete a cargo than a sawmill operator not in constant touch with the freight market. In some cases the middlemen charter their own steamers, and it has been contended that during the last few years more money has been made by them in this way than by selling lumber. Since the war broke out the obtaining of orders from abroad has merely been a question of ability to supply tonnage and not a difference of a few dollars per 1,000 feet as in previous years.

EXPORT AGENTS.

The export agent is a commission man between the exporter in the producing country and the foreign importer, or even between the domestic export merchant and the trading company. In some in-



Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 14.—Tamarack (*Larix laricina*) region.

stances, in New York City, for example, he is really a manufacturer's agent, selling and buying lumber on a commission basis. These agents are found in all the coast cities of the United States through which lumber is exported. They sometimes operate direct with the importers and sometimes through one or several foreign brokers.[a] Their main asset is the local knowledge that they must possess in order to buy as cheap as possible, because competition is strong. Upon receiving an order the export agent communicates with his mill connections and often divides an order among various mills where he can buy cheapest. He then assembles the cargo in a convenient port or instructs the ship to pick up the cargo lots at various ports. In many sections the agent has his own inspectors pass on the grades shipped.

The financial arrangement between the export agent and his broker connection varies a great deal but generally stipulates the division of the commission obtained or the payment of a fixed amount per

[a] For an account of the relative positions of the lumber broker and the importer in the lumber trade, see pp. 43 and 47.

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1,000 feet. The export agent sometimes obtains a commission both from the mills and from the purchaser—usually 2½ per cent from each party, but sometimes less. In other cases the importer pays the whole commission. Sometimes one or several competing mills may appoint an export agent to handle their total export business on a commission basis. The agent arranges for tonnage, clearing the vessel, and insurance. The freight problem frequently leads to speculation, and many agents charter their own steamers for speculative purposes.

On the Pacific coast several strong firms of export agents are found, mainly in San Francisco. They often maintain branch offices in several of the important shipping ports on the coast to enable them to keep in close touch with the mills and to attend to the loading and inspection of cargoes. Some of these agents have developed a very extensive business and many operate their own steamers.

On the Gulf and Atlantic coasts there are not so many export agents as there are on the Pacific coast. In New York City there are many smaller firms that make a specialty of long lengths of certain species of timber and stock for special purposes. They obtain their orders mainly through trading companies, who for convenience turn over to them orders calling for such specialties as they represent. These matters are then taken up with the various mills.

EXPORT MERCHANTS.

While the export agent sells and buys lumber on a commission basis, the export merchant stands for the importer as an independent exporter operating in his own name. These export merchants are strongly intrenched on the Gulf coast, where numbers of firms are found in the various shipping ports. Naturally a thorough knowledge of local conditions is essential in this business, which is almost entirely limited to buying and shipping. Direct exporting is more frequent on the Pacific coast, but on the Gulf coast very little business is done direct with foreign importers.

The export merchants generally make arrangements with one or more foreign brokers to represent them in the various countries, and they look to these brokers for their orders. Unless the importer supplies his own tonnage, the export merchant is generally called upon to quote c. i. f. prices. Many times he takes a chance on obtaining both lumber and tonnage when the order is actually placed with him. The export merchant is the executor of the order and the broker the salesman who actually controls the business. The terms between them vary considerably, but the commission charged by the broker on all orders booked through him is generally 4 to 7 or 8 per cent, including his guaranty for the payment of all accounts that he initiates (del credere). If any amounts are advanced by the broker to the export merchant, 6 per cent interest is usually charged. Provision is sometimes made to reimburse the broker for expenses of postage and telegrams, and sometimes these expenses are equally divided between exporter and broker. The broker sometimes acts as the export merchant's representative in cases of dispute regarding the quality of the lumber shipped.

The broker seldom places any restrictions upon the export merchant regarding the source of supply and allows him considerable

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latitude in filling the orders where he can buy cheapest. To specify the product of individual mills is not the custom unless the product is branded or otherwise capable of being identified. Softwoods in this country exported in any considerable quantities are generally not branded and it is practically impossible for the importer to know whether an order to supply lumber from certain sections has

Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 15.—Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga taxifolia*) region.

been carried out or not. In many cases such provisions are based on prejudice and are sometimes completely disregarded on this side. Hardwoods, on the other hand, are generally trade-marked when intended for export. In some cases the export merchant brands the lumber he exports with his own brand and institutes new grades based on some association rules but not always coinciding with them. As long as he can maintain the standard of these grades he

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may be very successful, but such constancy is not the rule. The lumber is bought from various sections and may include lots differing to a considerable extent in quality. In case of subsequent orders it may be difficult to duplicate the grade that was shipped before and trouble often ensues.

When the export merchant obtains an order through his broker he sends out bids to his various mill connections. Upon receiving their quotations he selects the most favorable offers, the advantage being as a rule a matter of price. He makes up the cargo by buying from one or from several mills. It will readily be seen that the export merchant can often buy at very low prices because he is in a position to approach many different parties engaged in competition, unorganized, and often glad to resort to dumping a certain percentage of their output which the domestic market is then incapable of consuming and which they stipulate shall not come back on the domestic market.

In obtaining lumber supplies the export merchant employs two methods. He either buys outright from the mills or speculates by contracting for the output of a mill during a certain period. It is evident that the export merchant's profit is entirely dependent upon his abilities as a buyer and his knowledge of conditions at the different mills. When the outlook for future business is bright or the export merchant has many orders on his hands he may contract for the entire output of one or more sawmills. He may either offer a fixed price for the output log run or he may state a price for each grade separately based on some association rules. The export merchant has his own inspector at the mill supervising the grading. If the market declines, these export merchants naturally are not so interested in taking the lumber and under these circumstances their inspectors sometimes become unreasonable in their demands. On the other hand, if the market goes up, the mill may become dissatisfied and try to make difficulty in inspection, with a view to inducing the export merchant to take as little as possible because the mill can place the goods to advantage elsewhere.

Contracting for the output of a mill is often a hazardous undertaking, because if orders cease to come in the export agent has to store the lumber for which he has contracted. Storage involves a heavy expense, and if the export merchant lacks the necessary funds to hold the lumber in the yards until more favorable conditions present themselves, he is forced to dump his stock either on the foreign or on the domestic market.

Through special arrangements made with the local banks, the export merchant usually pays cash for the lumber he buys. Sometimes, especially with hardwood shipments, he may arrange for a short-term credit through the foreign broker or may pay the mill a certain percentage, say, 75 to 85 per cent cash, and settle the balance after full payment for the cargo has been made by the importer on the other side.

The conduct of such a middleman's business does not generally necessitate any large capital, mainly because these middlemen can arrange with their banks to discount the drafts that they draw either on their customers or on their brokers in foreign countries. This feature of the export merchant's business is explained in the section on Financing the Export Business.

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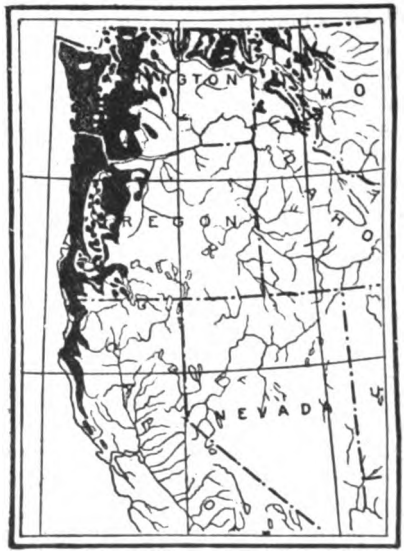
CONSIGNMENTS.

Sawmill operators or export merchants frequently desire to dispose of their stock without waiting for orders to come in. They therefore establish connections with a concern in some foreign port where they plan to ship their goods from time to time, and call upon this correspondent to advise them as to the prospects for consigning their stock. Upon advice from him the consignors ship their lumber, which is taken care of upon its arrival by the firm acting as consignee. It is customary for the consignee to guarantee the sale within six months of lumber consigned to him. Consignments from this

Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 16.—Redwood (*Sequoia sempervirens*) region.



Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 17.—Western-hemlock (*Tsuga heterophylla*) region.

country are often delayed several weeks in transit, and the market may change considerably while the goods are en route. If the market is good, the cargo may be sold while in transit or the consignee may succeed in disposing of it at a profit as soon as it is received; but as a rule conditions are not so favorable. The time of arrival may not be the proper time to dispose of the cargo. Odd sizes are frequently consigned and also small lots left over from previous shipments; and these sizes may not be in demand. Many other conditions may direct the consignor to have his lumber stored by the consignee. The latter often possesses large yards for this purpose, with docks and facilities for handling lumber cargoes. If the lumber is kept for some time in storage, the charges of handling, storage, insurance, etc., may not only entirely consume the expected profit but may result in a direct loss. Moreover, lumber in storage always has a depressing effect on the market.

The consignment business is confined almost entirely to hardwoods. Consignments are made chiefly to the principal European ports, such

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as London, Liverpool, Hamburg, Rotterdam, and Antwerp. Buyers from other countries frequently visit these cities and have the lumber transshipped.

The commission generally charged for disposing of a cargo sent on consignment is 1½ per cent plus 1½ per cent del credere, in addition to charges for storage, handling, etc. Many consignors call upon the consignee to advance them money on the lumber consigned, and the interest charged is generally about 6 per cent. More than 60 per cent of the value of the lumber is seldom advanced unless there is a certainty of selling the goods in the near future at favorable prices. The consignor calls upon his local bank to discount his draft on the consignee, which is then turned over to a bank in the place where the consignee operates. The lumber may be sold by the consignee in small parcels, and payment is made by the consignee to his bank as the amounts of these purchases are paid. If the bank in the foreign country turns over the whole consignment to the consignee, arrangements are made whereby the bank takes a chattel mortgage on the consignment. The bank may also arrange to receive payment as the lumber is sold. For further protection the bank always makes certain provisions regarding insurance when the lumber is held in storage.

The consigning of lumber is frequently practiced by other lumber-exporting countries than the United States, but most of them are in a much better position to get results, owing to their proximity to the markets. For instance, lumber and timber consigned by Scandinavian or Russian exporters to Great Britain is only a few days distant from the market. Parcel shipments can easily be sent, because the consignor frequently obtains low freight rates for goods to complete cargoes. There seems also to be a constant demand for certain dimensions of Scandinavian and Russian wood in this market, which makes transactions of this kind less hazardous. When a temporary shortage occurs the market can be supplied from consignment stock on short notice. Softwoods are generally consigned from these countries.

To consign a cargo without knowledge of market conditions, etc., is a most primitive method of selling lumber, which can not yield a profit in the long run. It is customary with the European brokers dealing in hardwoods to send out among their exporters in the United States and other countries a market report showing the demand for the various species of hardwoods, the arrivals of cargoes, and other details of the market. In some cases they may encourage the sending of shipments on consignment, because at the time that the report was issued the outlook for the disposal of such stock seemed favorable. These reports are received by many exporters, who prepare to follow the broker's advice and make up shipments as fast as possible. The exporters who are in a position to make immediate shipment will be benefited by the market, but shippers who are unable to place their goods on the market for three or four months after the arrival of the market reports may find that conditions have changed so much that they will have to store their shipment or sell at a sacrifice. It must also be borne in mind that when the demand is brisk the inspection on the other side is likely to be easy, but if the market is glutted the buyers are more exacting in their demands.

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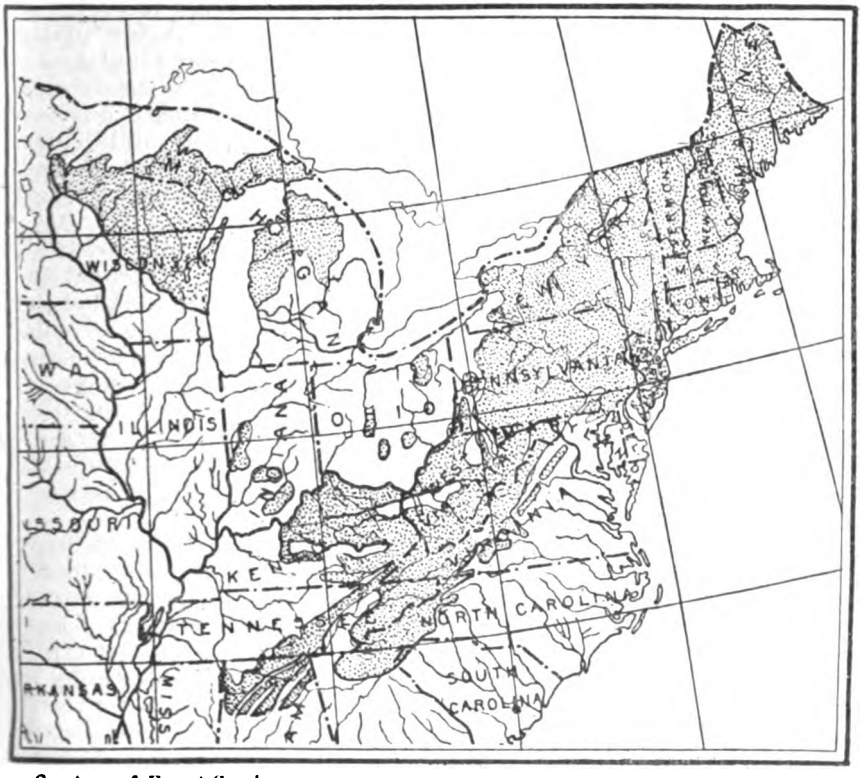
Lumber shipped on consignment and not moved promptly is frequently sold at auction, and in several of the principal ports in Europe there are firms that specialize in auction sales of lumber. London, Liverpool, and Hamburg are the principal cities where such transactions are carried on and important organizations are splendidly equipped with yards, docks, etc., to transact such business.



Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 18.—Eastern-hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis*) region.

From time to time printed circulars are distributed among thousands of prospective buyers, containing detailed descriptions of the different parcels for sale. The auction sales are also advertised through the trade papers. At these sales lumber merchants from the whole country and neighboring countries gather to supply their demands. They bid either direct or through a broker. The commission is generally 1¼ to 1½ per cent, and in addition a small charge is assessed against each purchaser to cover the cost of printing catalogues, postage, etc. The auctioneer undertakes to collect the amount. Cost of storage and handling is charged to the original owner. Auction sales are confined mostly to hardwoods and have many advantages. The purchaser may personally inspect the goods before bidding and therefore has no ground for claims. The charges for such services are considered moderate and auction sales of hardwoods have become a permanent institution in Europe.

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EXPORTING DIRECT.

Direct exporting is carried on to a greater extent by foreign countries than it is by the United States. But while the great bulk of lumber exported from the United States has moved through the various importing and exporting agencies described, there has been a growing tendency for the larger sawmill companies favorably situated on tidewater to do business direct with the foreign importer or his broker, especially since the outbreak of the war. A few of the softwood mills have even made the adaptations of their plant necessary for specializing in dimensions and sizes favored in the foreign markets. Until a mill did a large and continuous foreign business the profits of the trade have been left largely to the middlemen. With the steadily increasing and concentrated demands from abroad, the export mill has now found it profitable to pay greater attention to its foreign customers.

The percentage of direct exporting is greater in the hardwood trade than in the softwood. The reason may be that the hardwood exporters generally brand their lumber, thereby creating a distinct demand for the product of the various mills. The branding of softwoods has not been practiced to any great extent with export shipments. Moreover, hardwoods are nearly always shipped in parcel lots on regular liners, and this procedure eliminates the many difficulties connected with chartering vessels to carry whole cargoes. The services of the export middleman in the hardwood trade are therefore not so necessary as in the softwood export trade, where one of his main functions is to attend to the shipping.

Direct exporting, if conducted properly, is the ideal way of doing business. Firms doing a direct export business in this country generally are mills of good financial standing with a large output, able to guarantee delivery at specified time. Unfortunately American exporters do not have the same facilities for extending credit and for obtaining credit information through American banks as have other countries, and the American export manufacturer therefore almost invariably demands cash against documents, often before the cargo leaves port. If the importer accedes to such terms, he must have absolute confidence in the exporter. Direct exporting offers the mills many advantages, especially by enabling them to exercise better control of their business. The commission charged by one or more middlemen is eliminated and also the danger of having the grades tampered with.

Some American mills have taken steps to establish branch offices abroad to take charge of the selling and distribution of cargoes. Such steps are taken only after thorough investigation in the countries where they desire to operate, special attention being paid to the consuming power of the country, competition from other countries, the expense of developing the trade, and credit extension. The advantages that such an arrangement offers the mill are apparent. The branch office is in constant touch with the importers and the market and can supervise the unloading of cargoes and the settling of controversies arising from defective shipments. It is also in a position to place the lumber to the best advantage, to report whether or not the grades shipped satisfy the requirements, and to offer suggestions for improvement. Further, the exporter can obtain credit informa-

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tion direct through his branch office without using middlemen. In case of arrival of defective shipments the branch may take charge of them, store them, and place the lumber on the market when conditions seem favorable. Without such representation on the spot, the exporter many times is willing to accept any kind of settlement because he is at the mercy of the importer.

By elimination of middlemen the chances of misinterpretation of importers' instructions are greatly reduced. The brokers handle many different species and do not try to push any of them to the exclusion of others. By taking charge of the foreign sales themselves the mills would be in a position to push their own products more vigorously than if they were handled by brokers. For the mills to be represented through branch offices abroad has a strong moral effect upon the foreign importers. It gives the impression that the lumber manufacturer is a responsible person who has come to stay and who is willing to facilitate the settling of claims on the spot through his own representative.

Branches in foreign countries have been maintained for many years by Scandinavian forest owners and sawmill operators, who have a controlling interest in large selling and importing organizations in various countries. They have also founded deposits of lumber at the various seaports and wholesale and retail yard systems with woodworking establishments, and they own ships, etc., managed and operated by Scandinavians. In some cases these firms handle species of wood not in direct competition with wood from their forests. The business developed by these concerns is very large and has been a great factor in the extension of markets for Scandinavian forest products abroad through the extended uses for their lumber. The lumber sold is nearly always branded. Some of these concerns bunch their orders for lumber, freights, supplies, etc., and can obtain better prices than smaller concerns. As a rule these branches have headquarters in Scandinavia, which attend to shipping the lumber and chartering ships.

JOINT SELLING AGENCIES.

With the keener competition in the export trade, the reduction of selling expenses plays an important part in securing orders. Some export mills have combined to sell their output through a joint agency and to separate the selling from the manufacturing of lumber in order to increase the efficiency of both production and marketing. Here and there a mill would form a separate selling organization to dispose of its entire output. Where the business developed beyond the capacity of the mill to fill, lumber was bought from outside mills producing approximately the same class of lumber. This situation in several localities developed into an amalgamation of such groups of sawmill operators, each bearing a proportionate share of the expense of the selling agency.

In certain sections, several mills located in the same territory and producing the same class of lumber have made arrangements with export merchants to handle their combined output. Such arrangements have been beneficial to these mills through their increased ability to take care of important orders that one mill would have found it difficult to execute alone, and through the elimination of a certain amount of competition among the exporting agencies.

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COMBINATIONS IN THE EXPORT LUMBER TRADE.

The group of mills selling for export trade through a single agency has had thus far little effect in eliminating cutthroat competition among the mills and has perhaps even intensified the struggle between the groups and the individual outside mills to dispose of their cut. Consequently, plans are under way in all the important lumber sections to form gigantic selling companies to handle as much as can be controlled of the exported products of entire producing regions.

There has been some difference of opinion as to whether the provisions of the antitrust law would apply to combinations for the export trade. This uncertainty in some cases has prevented the active operation of such "combines" and in others has deterred exporters from joining export selling companies.

Two lumber export organizations are in operation at present, both on the Pacific coast. The Douglas Fir Exploitation & Export Co. was incorporated in San Francisco, Cal., to handle the lumber export trade and to exploit foreign markets, chiefly for Douglas fir. This company began operations in November, 1916, and acts as sole representative for export trade for nearly all the shippers of Douglas fir on the Pacific coast. The company allots the orders received to the different mills in proportion to their capacity, as mutually agreed upon by the mills, and does this business on a commission basis. Payment is guaranteed within 10 days after the receipt of the complete shipping documents from the shippers. The shippers are the stockholders in the company, and part of the profit secured through the commission charged will be used for the development of foreign markets for Douglas fir. The company, it is understood, intends not to exclude the services of the various middlemen but to cooperate with them when such cooperation will be mutually advantageous.

The success of the company depended largely upon getting a sufficient number of mills interested in its formation to give it their sole representation for export business and thus make it difficult for outsiders to compete. The company has already taken steps toward direct soliciting of orders from abroad and has representatives in the foreign field to attend to its business. During the first three months of its operation it was reported to have 60,000,000 feet of lumber booked and had obtained about $2.50 above the export prices ruling a few months earlier.

The Redwood Export Co. was formed in 1912 by manufacturers of California redwood controlling about 80 per cent of the total quantity exported. This company acts as a selling agency for the exporters. It also makes sales for outside companies on a commission basis (1¼ per cent). Orders to the members are distributed according to agreed proportions. The profits of the company are used partly in the development of foreign markets. Since its formation the exports of redwood have increased materially. The principal advantages derived from the combination are the ability to fill orders promptly and the stabilizing of prices—factors that have induced foreign merchants to carry large stocks. Extensive propaganda work has been carried on in several countries with great success, especially in Australia and Argentina.

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LUMBER-IMPORTING METHODS.

INTERNATIONAL LUMBER BROKERS.

Situated between the great lumber-producing and lumber-using countries of Europe, the Netherlands was once the leading country in the international lumber trade, but centuries ago the supremacy passed to the United Kingdom. For many years the United Kingdom has been the greatest import lumber center of the world. The important trade created by domestic needs has been supplemented by the export-import trade of Great Britain's many rich colonies, and this natural foundation, joined to the facilities of the British merchant marine and British financial power, has created and maintained the great English lumber and timber brokerage firms that have come to conduct a world-wide export and import business.

Especially in the United Kingdom, almost all lumber importation is done through brokers. Even the Government, important industrial enterprises, and railroad companies place their orders through these middlemen. The British brokers, as a result of their extensive national trade, have been able to divert considerable business from direct channels between other importing and exporting countries and to build up a valuable clientele in Continental Europe. Through their agency, the Baltic pine and spruce of Scandinavia and Finland and the Baltic and White Sea ports of Russia reach the English wholesaler, and through them the teak of Siam and the tropical hardwoods of the African west coast are distributed over Europe. Their chartered ships bring Circassian walnut from Turkestan and Persia, rosewood and mahogany from Central and South America, eucalyptus, kauri, and jarrah from Australia, greenheart from British Guiana, and the pines, firs, redwood, cypress, spruce, and hardwoods from the United States and Canada. Thus the bulk of the world's international lumber trade passes through Liverpool and London and pays its toll to the British broker. By far the greater part of the lumber trade across the seas uses British money quotations and British cubic-foot measurements. Because England is a free-trade country, the quotations prevailing there are generally taken as a basis for the lumber market.

The more important brokerage firms, often of several partners, handle considerable capital in carrying on their business with connections in practically every country of the world. Besides the capital invested in their business, they generally enjoy extensive credit granted by British banks, which enables them to have millions of dollars' worth of business on their hands at one time. Several of the largest firms have controlling interests in foreign forests, sawmills, exporting agencies, ships, etc. They establish connections with one or more export agents or export merchants in foreign countries, and also direct with the sawmills. They may obtain the sole representation for a certain territory of the United Kingdom, the entire United Kingdom, the United Kingdom and colonies, or even for the entire output of the exporter's mill wherever they may choose to sell it. The brokers exercise great influence, and their importance should not be underrated. Their financial resources at least are generally considerably greater than those of the export agents and export merchants in the United States.

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Sometimes the brokers specialize only in handling one species of wood, but as a rule they handle various kinds through different departments. The same broker might represent one or more exporters of Scandinavian and Russian pine and spruce, American and Canadian hard and soft woods, Australian and Asiatic hardwoods, etc. This variety of woods handled places him in a position to take care of almost any kind of order. Some of these brokers are engaged in the consignment business.

These brokers operate exclusively on a commission basis. The charges vary considerably, according to the special arrangements for each firm. A commission of 4 to 8 per cent is generally charged the American exporter. This commission includes broker's charges for guaranteeing the payment of the accounts relative to the business that he initiates (del credere). If any arrangement has been made between exporter and broker regarding an advance on the sales made by the broker for the exporter's account, the broker charges 2 per cent discount. If the broker secures orders from a distant country, a higher commission is paid by the exporter. For European business outside of the United Kingdom, an additional 1 per cent is often paid by the exporter. In some cases the broker's expenses for postage and telegrams are either paid by the exporter or divided between the exporter and the broker.

The commission charged Scandinavian exporters is generally less than that which American exporters pay, mainly because the different mills in Scandinavia have more established markets and cause the broker less expense and work in disposing of their stock.

The more important broker firms have established connections or branches in various countries. In this manner the brokers are able to comb the territory and to keep in close touch with the importers. The broker generally splits his commission with his correspondents, or subagents, as they are called. These subagents receive specifications from the various importers in their territory and transmit them to the broker, together with credit information regarding the importers concerned, and other information relative to competition, etc. The broker cables his connections among the various exporters in the countries where the order may be filled. Upon receiving quotations he submits them to the importer through the subagent. When an order is placed with the lowest-bidding American exporter, the latter draws on the broker for 75 per cent of the net amount of the invoice, depending upon previous arrangement. This draft is sent to the broker through the exporter's bank and is honored by the broker. Considering the enormous amount of business transacted by these brokers, it would be impossible for them to meet the exporter's demands for cash payment if they did not have the adequate support from their banking connections.

The broker frequently extends credit to the English and Continental importer—generally for four months or longer—but gives him the option of cash payment, less 2 per cent. In case of extending credit, the broker, as a rule, draws on the importer and discounts the draft in the great London discount market. He has all facilities for ascertaining the standing of his customers through his representatives and banking connections. Besides, the more important lumber importers in the European countries are well established and pursue more conservative business methods than elsewhere. This

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fact lessens the risk of losses through credit extensions, if the broker should prefer to carry them himself.

In cases of keen competition among various brokers, the importer frequently calls upon the broker who succeeds in obtaining the business to guarantee the exact execution of the contract. In other cases, the importer calls upon both the broker and his representative. With a personal guaranty from one of these parties, or from both, the importer, in case of defective shipment, can immediately hold them responsible. This procedure in many cases is considerably safer and cheaper than to look for final settlement from the exporter in a distant country. As a rule, competition is keen among the brokers and no compensation is paid by the importers for such services.

In a few markets where American lumber is sold, some brokers have registered their own brand and demand that all lumber shipped through them be branded with this special trade-mark. Frequently the broker does not look with favor upon branded lumber (exporter's brand) unless he has a permanent connection with the exporter. So many specifications might call for this or that brand, if the standards were kept up, that the exporter would be disposed to take steps toward selling direct to the exclusion of the broker or to arrange for better terms elsewhere. This contingency is sometimes prevented by branding the lumber with the broker's own registered trade-mark.

Scandinavian lumber handled by the foreign brokers, as a rule, is branded and has been handled by the same brokers for a number of years. The standard of grades, however, is kept up carefully. This has created a permanent market for particular brands and lessened the cost of selling, thereby enabling the exporters to secure better terms from the brokers.

A number of European brokers have established direct connections with American sawmill operators, generally on the same terms as those in effect between the broker and export merchant, described later.

The advantages offered by the broker to the exporter are chiefly that the broker has obtained a clientele of importers through years of persistent work, knows the conditions on the other side, and is also in a position to finance the business. He is frequently called upon to settle controversies between importer and exporter on account of deficient grades, etc., and understands the position of both parties concerned. He also bunches orders to make up a full cargo divided among various importers. Through his banking connections he is able to arrange credit for the importer and advance cash payment on cargoes to the exporters at a lower rate than it is possible to transact such business in this country, where interest has been 1 per cent and more above the European rate. He knows his customers; his representatives visit them regularly. He is also in a position to guarantee the proper execution of the contracts that he arranges, and this gives the importer the necessary confidence in the proper fulfillment of the contract.

The commission charged by the London and Liverpool brokers may not seem large in any individual case, but the volume of business transacted in the course of a year rolls up a noteworthy aggregate in commissions. It has been stated that the brokers collect about

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$1,000,000 annually in commissions on lumber and timber exported from this country to the United Kingdom alone.

In Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, France, Italy, Spain, and other countries there are important brokers, but their combined business would probably not compare in volume with that of a comparatively few British brokers. Moreover, the British brokers often operate in close connection with these Continental brokers, who in many cases may be considered as their representatives or partners.

In Germany the principal brokers are located in Hamburg and Bremen, both of which have free ports. From these trade centers the lumber is distributed to the most remote parts of Germany through the excellent systems of canals and railways. The hardwood trade is practically in the hands of a very few concerns operating storage yards with facilities for handling lumber cargoes. The German brokers do not restrict their activities to their own country. The neighboring countries, such as Switzerland, Austria-Hungary, and the Scandinavian countries, besides German colonies and the south European countries, are canvassed by these brokers, who frequently reconsign cargoes in parcel lots to the various markets.

In France, Paris is the residence of the largest brokerage firms. Besides France and its colonies, Spain, Portugal, and northern Africa are occasionally covered by the French brokers. In Spain and Italy the principal brokers are located in Barcelona and Genoa. The neighboring countries are frequently visited by these brokers. In the Netherlands and Belgium the important brokerage firms are found in Rotterdam, Antwerp, and Brussels. From these centers quantities of lumber are distributed through the Rhine region for most of Germany. The Continental brokers do business in the same way as the brokers of Britain, and generally on the same terms.

BROKERS COMPETING WITH IMPORTERS.

While the brokers mentioned operate almost exclusively with the large importers, others are found who try to reach the wholesalers, retailers, and consumers. This broker gets in direct touch with the more important consumers, such as contractors, railroads, factories, etc., and endeavors to make up a cargo by bunching their orders. If sufficient orders can not be obtained for a full cargo, the broker tries to communicate with steamship companies operating regular lines between the producing and the consuming countries, and sometimes succeeds in this way in obtaining the necessary space.

The nature of his business naturally brings this broker in severe competition with the large brokerage firms and also with the importers in the countries where he operates. The business of these brokers is necessarily often limited and uncertain, and it is difficult for them to obtain the representation of any important exporting concern. In most cases they do not have the facilities for transacting their business in so profitable a way as have the large brokerage firms. One defective shipment with resulting claims is often more than sufficient to put them out of business. Still, they are sometimes in a position to offer serious competition by submitting direct to consumers quotations that give them the benefit of wholesale prices. Their activities can not be compared with the American mail-order business, because the transportation question is the chief obstacle that they have to overcome.

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Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 19.—GOOD STAND OF CHESTNUT.

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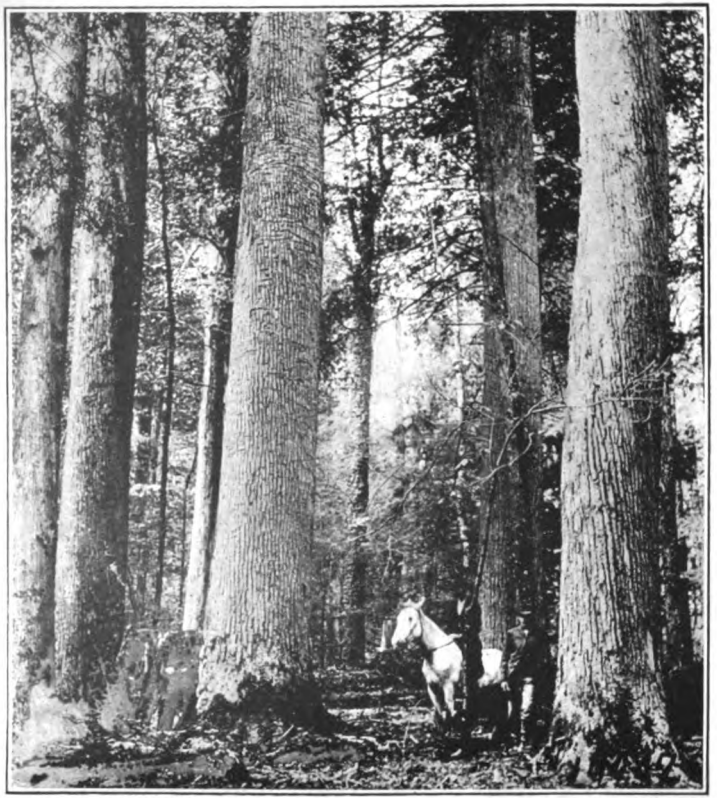
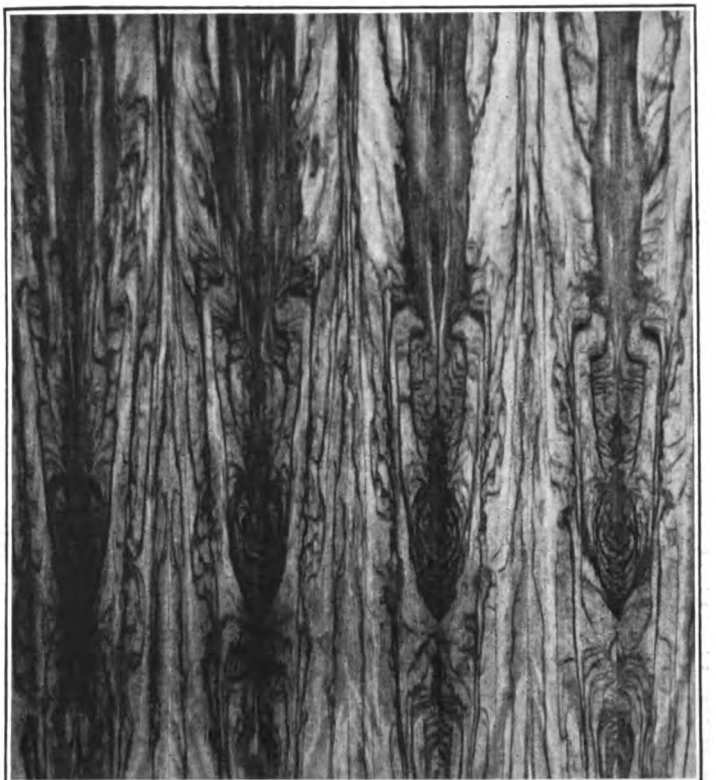


Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 20.—GOOD STAND OF POPLAR.



Courtesy of Gum Lumber Manufacturers' Association.

FIG. 21.—QUARTER-SAWED RED-GUM VENEER, FIGURED AND MATCHED.

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FOREIGN LUMBER IMPORTERS.

EUROPEAN IMPORTERS.

The chief function of a lumber importer is to keep sufficient quantities of lumber in stock to supply the trade in his country and to fill orders on short notice.

Importers are found principally in large seaports in Europe, among the principal lumber-importing ports being the following: Hamburg, Bremen, London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Belfast, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Havre, Nantes, Bordeaux, Bilbao, Lisbon, Barcelona, Marseille, and Genoa. In these ports are large firms importing lumber from several countries. The importers have storage yards and sheds, with docks and other facilities for storing and handling lumber cargoes. In many cases they also operate woodworking establishments for the resawing and further manufacturing of lumber and timber. Some of these importers also own vessels, in which they carry the cargoes that they buy. They may specialize in one or two kinds of wood, but as a rule they handle several kinds. Many importers also deal in other construction material, such as cement, iron, etc.

The importers generally buy through brokers; some, however, have direct connections with shippers in exporting countries, and others have established their own purchasing agencies in lumber-exporting countries. The conduct of an importer's business usually necessitates a large amount of capital and the risk is often great in the lumber-importing trade. It often happens that lumber importers must keep on hand a stock sufficient for a year or more. This practice involves a heavy risk of fire and deterioration of the material while in storage. Lumber importers in many European countries therefore are cooperating to protect their mutual interests; such combinations are particularly strong in Germany and Belgium. The importers may in some instances agree as to division of territory by establishing special zones, regulate prices on the domestic market, and cooperate in obtaining credit information and in securing equitable inland railroad rates.

Frequently in buying supplies the importers bunch their orders to make up a cargo. This is generally done through the agency of a broker, because it entails considerable work in connection with the discharge of the vessel. Such practices are especially frequent where importers have branches in various seaports to supply different inland markets at the lowest possible cost. In other cases competitors may cooperate in this way to secure parcel lots at cargo rates. The freight and insurance are generally somewhat higher than if only one loading port is specified. The importers, however, are willing to pay this additional cost because they may urgently need the lumber or may be relieved from keeping unnecessarily large quantities in stock.

It is important to notice that the price of lumber, especially in this country, is subject to heavy fluctuations, whether for domestic use or for export. The importers therefore take great risks. They may be unfortunate enough to buy when the market is high and thus be unable to compete successfully with other importers who have secured the lumber at lower rates. This contingency often discourages the buying of cargoes if smaller lots can be obtained from time to time.

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Some importers restrict their dealing to wholesalers while others sell to wholesalers, retailers, and consumers. However, the rule is that the importers protect the wholesalers by not selling to retailers or consumers. It is not often found that lumber dealers operate a number of wholesale or retail establishments. This practice has been developed to a much greater extent in the United States. Scandinavian lumber exporters have entered foreign markets as importers, but such a step has been taken by only one American lumber exporter, who had an importing organization in Germany.

The lumber importer generally extends credit to his customers. The terms vary considerably in the different countries, but 30 days net are the general terms, with 2 per cent discount for cash payment. In other countries 90 days' credit and even more is given. The importer has the advantage of knowing the customers and can arrange with the banks to discount his drafts.

The importer generally does not advertise his lumber in any effective way, although he faces the same competition from substitutes as the lumber manufacturers in this country. The lumber business has been carried on along the same lines for decades and the customers usually demand the same stock and the same brands every year. Thus the importer is able to estimate with a fair amount of accuracy the probable consumption each year.

Foreign governments import direct or through brokers. From an exporter's standpoint, some of them have been very unreasonable in their demands and have not been willing to accept inspection in American ports, even when shippers have offered to pay the expenses entailed by the foreign government's inspection on this side. When the lumber arrived the foreign governments have frequently rejected a large percentage of the cargo; and as government specifications generally differ considerably from the dimensions sold in the open market, exporters have been unable to dispose of the lumber without a serious loss.

It has been a practice of the importer temporarily to waive claims for defective shipments but to make it a condition that the amount of the claim be added to any amount of future claims in case of defective shipments booked through the same firm. The broker frequently is called upon to settle claims, and as a rule he has performed this work to the satisfaction of the trade. If the broker can not come to an agreement with the importer, the contracts generally provide for the appointment of two arbitrators, one selected by each party, who, if they are unable to come to terms, mutually agree upon a third party, whose decision is considered final. In some cases the matter is settled by the decision of any two of these three arbitrators. Many times it is difficult for American exporters to find arbitrators conversant with the business. This difficulty has been solved by one association of hardwood exporters in the United States, which maintains an office in Europe in charge of a person who has a thorough knowledge of the conditions on both sides and whose integrity is recognized by both importers and exporters. The services rendered by such an organization are very valuable.

Lumber is generally sold on a c. i. f. basis. In cases where a through bill of lading is issued from an inland point in the exporting country to the point of destination in the importing country, the

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importers have sometimes arranged in such a way that they pay the total freight, including ocean and rail charges, to the ocean-transportation company upon the arrival of the goods. The ocean-transportation company then settles with the railroad company in the producing country.

Sometimes the charter parties of the various companies may have different stipulations, which are entirely a matter between the importer and the transportation company, such as the quantity of lumber to be discharged per day, payment of part of the freight in advance, payment of special dues, etc., all of which are of a local nature and differ a great deal in the different ports.

The importer's profit is derived from his intimate knowledge of the markets and the grades required in the territory where he operates. Such knowledge has been gained through years of experience and it would be difficult for the exporter not specializing in any one market to obtain this information equally well. In most cases the lumber importer buys lumber more or less unsorted with a view to regrading it himself to suit his market. This is especially true in the case of shipments from the United States, because American exporters are less careful in differentiating grades than are those of other countries. For instance, it has been found upon investigation that most importers expect a certain amount of clears to be included in merchantable grades.

The business of the importer is mainly to fill orders on short notice. His position is especially strong in ports without direct connections with lumber-producing countries, so that lumber imported must be bought in cargo lots. Dangerous competition comes from the smaller brokers previously referred to, who specialize in making up cargoes by bunching orders from wholesalers, retailers, and consumers. With the establishment of direct steamship lines between exporting and importing countries, the importer's position is to some extent weakened, because he faces competition from exporters shipping in parcel lots direct to the customers. From an exporter's standpoint the establishment of direct steamship connections with the importing countries may be beneficial because this circumstance often lessens the price of lumber in the consuming country and creates a more extensive market for his product.

In some ports, especially in the various free ports, large stocks of lumber and timber are kept for transshipment to foreign countries. Such stock may command good prices, especially when the consumer is in great need of it and the seller can guarantee prompt shipment. These merchants are often benefited by the many direct steamship lines plying between the ports where they are located and neighboring countries. In most European countries special provisions exist regarding the refund of duty paid on imported lumber when it is reexported. As much as 99 per cent of the duty paid may thus be refunded. In the free ports no duty is paid at all. The value of the lumber reexported from the United Kingdom in 1913 amounted to about $7,000,000.

The trend of the lumber-importing business in some parts of Europe is toward concentration in a few hands capable of keeping large stocks and a great variety of species and dimensions. Com-

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petition is growing keener among the smaller importing companies, and they are gradually being absorbed by the more important concerns.

IMPORTERS IN AUSTRALIA, THE ORIENT, AND LATIN AMERICA.

Probably in no country are the lumber importers better organized than in Australia. According to Commercial Agent Franklin H. Smith, of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, various associations exist among the importers in the different cities in Australia. The purpose of these associations is to control domestic prices and the purchase of lumber from other countries and in general to protect their mutual interests along similar lines. They may obtain the lumber through resident brokers who have established connections with shippers in different countries, but they also deal direct with the exporters or agents in the exporting country.

Lumber exporters to the Orient find China their principal market. Native merchants and others buy largely through trading companies or from agents in various coast cities in this country and also to some extent direct from the mills.

According to Special Agent Roger E. Simmons, the lumber-importing business in South America is largely in the hands of various trading companies, which are described in a later section. These trading companies are especially strong on the west coast of South America. In Chile the importers generally carry stocks of both native and imported wood. Some of them buy direct from mills on the Pacific coast of North America, but most of them buy through trading companies. These trading companies also act as importers, with branches in the more important cities. In Peru the importers do not keep stock, as a rule, but merely act as agents. In both Chile and Peru important railroads and mining companies are frequently in the market for cargo lots. They do not, however, import direct to any extent but place their orders through importers on a commission basis or buy outright from importers.

In Colombia the bulk of the lumber imported from this country came until recently via Porto Rico. Colombian hardwoods were shipped to Porto Rico and American lumber taken as return cargo. However, direct importation from this country is growing. Some of the larger corporations in Colombia import direct from the United States without the use of an importing agency. Dealers and the principal consumers attend to the unloading themselves.

On the east coast of South America the conditions are similar to those on the west coast. Important trading companies maintain branch offices in nearly all the principal ports. In Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil the rule is to place the orders for American lumber through import agents. These agents often are branches of English firms with the head office in London and other branches in the United States. These branches either buy from the mills direct or place the orders through export agents specializing in the particular species in question. In a few instances Argentinian and Brazilian lumber dealers have purchasing agencies in this country and place their orders for lumber through these. It is also reported that competing importers may place their orders through such firms as have purchasing agencies in the United States. The import agents are especially

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of freight, and settlement of accounts but are seldom engaged in the selling of lumber. They often work in combination with exporters in this country.

Parcel shipments arrive regularly at all South American countries on liners, generally from New York, which are obtained through the lumber agencies of that city.

In the West Indies there is a tendency for closer relations between exporters and importers, and a big business is now done direct between the exporting mills in this country and West Indian lumber importers. Some of the principal American exporters have also considered establishing themselves as importers in these islands in the near future.

FOREIGN PURCHASING AGENCIES IN UNITED STATES.

The volume of business done by foreign importers and brokers sometimes justifies them in establishing branch offices in this country to place their orders direct with the mills and to supervise the shipments. Not only private concerns are interested in this undertaking but also foreign governments, which sometimes maintain special representatives for this purpose. The activities of these foreign purchasing agents are almost entirely confined to the Gulf coast region, and here some of them maintain several branches in the more important shipping ports.

Various reasons are given for establishing such purchasing agencies. It is commonly alleged by the foreign importer that the American exporters often delay shipments for various reasons, and that the importers suffer heavy losses on account of the failure of the American exporters to make deliveries at the specified times. Disputes often arise between exporter and importer regarding quality shipped, and they are not always settled to the satisfaction of the importer. The exporters also in many cases manifest a lack of knowledge of the conditions and the requirements in other countries. Taking all these circumstances into consideration, some importers prefer to establish themselves in this country and place their orders direct with the mills. They maintain inspection services and pay cash for their purchases in the same way as the export merchant.

The foreign purchasing agencies are managed by experienced lumber merchants familiar with conditions in this country and abroad. They are therefore able to buy very advantageously, because in filling an order they also have their customer's wants in view. Some of these firms operate steamers that they either own or charter, and attend to the clearing of their vessels themselves. Their customers abroad have a decided advantage in cases of complaint, because they can take the matter up direct with the importer in their own country. As these concerns generally restrict their import trade to their own country, they must settle all claims in a satisfactory way. This necessity serves as a guaranty for their customers that many American exporters can not give, because they have not always aimed to receive another order from the same parties. It is a peculiar feature that orders from competing importers abroad are sometimes placed with importers who maintain purchasing agencies in this country. In some cases foreign brokers enter into agreements with American mills regarding the handling of their products.

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FOREIGN CAPITAL IN AMERICAN SAWMILLS.

Foreign capital is not interested to any great extent in American sawmills and timberlands. But brokers sometimes invest money in the timberlands, sawmills, and ships belonging to certain mills and thereby become directly interested in selling the products of these mills. On the Gulf coast also are several large sawmills, operated and owned by foreign lumber merchants. These merchants are strong concerns, have been in business for a number of years, have an extensive clientele in their respective countries, and offer their customers the same guaranty as the importers with purchasing agencies.

TRADING COMPANIES.

A great percentage of international trade is controlled by important trading companies with an extensive organization in the consuming as well as in the producing countries. These companies deal in a great many commodities, and most of them handle lumber products. Most of these companies are foreign, but some are American-owned. The companies operating in this country generally maintain a head office in New York and branches in several other ports. Especially on the Pacific coast they do an extensive business, concentrated in San Francisco, with branch offices in other cities.

The companies generally maintain special lumber departments to handle their lumber export business, and place the orders direct with the mills, either on a commission basis or by outright purchase. They often operate steamships between the United States and foreign ports, so that they are in a position to make prompt deliveries; some have a number of time-chartered ships and others own their own steamers. It is principally their excellent facilities for making deliveries that has brought them their extensive business. In foreign countries, especially in South America, they have equally good facilities for receiving cargoes through established branches in the principal cities, and have sometimes also arranged for an efficient distributing system. Their clientele in other lines, such as flour, grain, oil, etc., frequently brings them orders for lumber, and as they control to a great extent the available tonnage on direct liners from the west coast of the United States, especially to South America, they have a firm grasp on the lumber export business. In shipping other commodities not sufficient to constitute a full cargo they often complete the cargo with lumber. The volume of business transacted allows them to operate on a very small margin of profit. Orders for other species of lumber than those on the west coast are generally handled through the main offices in New York. Some companies also have branches in New Orleans and other cities.

Orders for special stock are frequently referred to export agents in New York and elsewhere who specialize in filling such orders. Some trading companies have learned through experience the various grades needed in different markets and request the mills to brand the lumber with the trading company's own brand.

The following instance illustrates the course of many orders from South America and other foreign points to the American mills: A lumber dealer in Brazil places an order with an English trading com-

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pany maintaining an import agency in Rio de Janeiro. This branch turns the order over to its head office in London and this office sends it to the branch in New York. If the order calls for special stock, the New York branch may turn it over to a local lumber agent on a commission basis. This agent may either place the order direct with an American mill or pass it over to an export merchant, who may buy from one or several lumber manufacturers. Such an order is usually financed through English bankers or by the trading companies themselves.

In other countries the tendency is for the lumber exporters to try to communicate direct with the lumber importers.

FINANCING THE LUMBER EXPORT TRADE.

The question of finance is always one of the most important matters in connection with the export trade. The manufacturer or the export agent can not afford to have money tied up in shipments that will probably take months to reach their destination. Besides, it is too much of a risk to place the goods in the hands of an importer (whose standing many times is unknown to the exporter) without adequate security. If the lumber is not paid for, the importer with the cargo in his port could refuse to accept it and by making unjust claims practically force the exporter to come to terms.

Cases where credit is granted between exporter and importer in direct dealing with each other are not very common in this country. The exporter sends his draft to a bank for collection, either a local bank or a bank in one of the principal cities in this country or direct to a bank in the country in which the debtor resides. The debtor is charged with interest for the time which it takes for the exporter to get his money.

The terms between sawmill owners and export agents are nearly always cash. In dealings between sawmill owners or export middlemen and brokers the two parties generally agree upon the following arrangement: As soon as the vessel is loaded and clearance papers obtained the exporter may draw on the broker either for the full amount of the cargo or for a percentage—usually 70 to 90 per cent; most commonly 75 per cent—the balance to be settled after the cargo has arrived and been found satisfactory. All necessary shipping documents must be attached to the draft in order to place the broker in possession of the cargo when he takes up the draft or accepts it. Instead of turning this draft over to some banking connection in the foreign country for collection the exporter generally calls upon his banking connection in this country, who discounts his draft. In other words, the bank actually grants the exporter a loan having security (*a*) in the apparent value of the shipment made, (*b*) in the broker who takes up or accepts the draft, and (*c*) in the exporter himself, to whom he has redress in case the broker should be unable to pay the draft when it falls due. It is essential for the bank to ascertain the standing of the exporter before discounting his draft, and also to verify the shipping documents.

Banks are found in all the large cities with proper connections abroad to discount the exporters' drafts. In places of less importance the smaller banks nearly always have arrangements with banks in

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the large cities to enable them to handle the exporters' drafts in their sections. Unfortunately this country has not the same banking facilities abroad as have the other exporting countries, though steps have been taken during the last few years to establish branches of American banks abroad, especially in South America.

In some cases where exporter and broker have mutual confidence an open credit is arranged between them. The exporter is credited with the amount of his shipments and debited with the amount of his drafts. Open credit is used where continuous shipments take place and may be limited to a certain time. As a rule, the broker demands that a certain balance remain in his favor. The advantage of such arrangement is that it enables the exporter to draw for a larger amount of a series of shipments instead of drawing 75 to 80 per cent for each and awaiting settlement of each shipment before he can get the balance of his money. The drafts are discounted in the local banks in the usual way.

GRADING AND INSPECTION OF LUMBER FOR EXPORT.

Considering the fact that this country has more than 300 different species of wood, it may readily be understood that the fixing of specific grading rules even for the principal species exported is a very difficult matter. Further complications are introduced by the large variety of species among the different classes or groups of woods and by the many different names under which a single species is sometimes known.

Special grading rules have at times been adopted for the export trade, differing materially from the domestic grades, especially with regard to the amount of sap allowed, etc. Many different grading rules are adhered to by different exporters in this country—the rules of the lumber association to which they belong or rules that experience with a special country or customer has dictated. It is important to establish rules that importers recognize and that will answer the particular requirements in each country and at the same time also correspond to the nature of the product turned out by the mills catering to the export trade. These rules must be made the basis of complaints for deficient grade, and must be made as definite as possible. All grading rules state that it is impossible to make absolutely definite rules for the classification of lumber and timber. Grading rules must necessarily be somewhat elastic, and their application must depend upon the grader's judgment.

It can not be said in general that the American exporters have succeeded in having their grading rules universally recognized abroad. Disputes as to grades are the most serious obstacle to the selling of American lumber abroad.

It is generally considered that the Douglas-fir inspection and grading rules concerning export shipments are the most satisfactory. Some years ago a bureau of inspection was formed, called the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau (Inc.), which is a separate establishment from the lumber associations. This bureau employs licensed inspectors and undertakes at a fixed charge per 1,000 feet to inspect cargoes for export. When the cargo has been found "up to grade" the bureau issues an inspection certificate, sworn to before a notary

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public and countersigned by one of the supervisors of the bureau, certifying to the quantity, character, and condition of the shipment. This certificate is always accepted as proof of the character and condition of the cargo at port of shipment and relieves the shipping mill from any responsibility for impairment of condition during transit. When the exporter has loaded the cargo he presents the inspection certificate to the bank, together with the draft, bill of lading, insurance policy, and other shipping documents. It is understood that these certificates are of the greatest importance in facilitating the discounting of drafts, because the bank's main security is the value of the cargo.

This bureau has been in existence for a number of years, and its services are considered very valuable and impartial to both importers and exporters. At present the bureau inspects practically all export shipments of Douglas-fir lumber from the Pacific coast. Last year's report (1916) states that 13,696 inspection certificates were issued and only four complaints were received—two from Europe, one from South America, and one from Australia. One of these complaints was not concerned with grade.

It must be added, however, that the inspection of west-coast lumber is not so complicated as it is elsewhere, on account of the more uniform species growing in that part of the country and the large percentage of high grades manufactured for export.

A certificate of inspection is issued by the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau in the following form:

PACIFIC LUMBER INSPECTION BUREAU (INC.).

with which is consolidated

The Oregon and Washington Lumber Inspection Bureau.

LUMBER INSPECTOR'S CERTIFICATE.

_____, 191__.

We } _____ } regularly approved
I } _____ }

Lumber Inspector__, licensed by the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau (Inc.), and at the time acting in that capacity, do hereby certify that we (I) have personally surveyed and inspected, according to the grading and survey rules as per _____ adopted by the West Coast Lumber Manufacturers' Association, the cargo of lumber shipped on board the _____ by _____, bound for _____, and the said cargo has been shipped in good order and condition and consists of_____

_____

Remarks: _____

_____ } Inspector.

Subscribed and sworn to before me, the undersigned, a notary public in and for the _____, by the above-named party, personally known to me as the person signing the above Certificate.

_____, Notary Public.

Countersigned: _____, Supervisor. Dated: _____, 191__.

[This Certificate is not valid unless bearing the seal of the Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau (Inc.), countersigned by one of its supervisors and free from alterations.]

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Bureaus of grades are also operated in connection with the various lumber associations in different parts of the country. These bureaus are established to supervise the grading of manufactured stock.

In the Scandinavian countries grading rules were established years ago and have not been changed. The reputation established by the individual mills and the demand for their particular brands force them to exercise care in maintaining the standard of their products. No certificates of inspection are issued with lumber cargoes, because cash before ship leaves port is not the usual method of payment, and the importer has a chance to inspect the cargo before payment is made.

With grades comparatively unknown in many markets, no general custom of branding, and terms often cash before the cargo leaves port, the American lumber trade needs the services of an inspection bureau of the highest standard. The Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau has been a very important factor in bringing the west-coast lumber into foreign markets.

SHIPPING THE LUMBER.

RELATIVE ADVANTAGES OF STEAMSHIPS AND SAILING VESSELS.

The question often arises whether to charter steamers or sailing vessels for carrying lumber from this country to other countries. Both types are extensively used, although steamers have gained the preference during the last 20 or 30 years. The choice is usually determined by the freight rates, and if the difference in freight quotations is considerable, preference is given to sailing vessels unless special conditions apply. During late years many sailing vessels have been equipped with auxiliary marine engines, which help to counterbalance the disadvantages of sailing vessels in comparison with steamers. In many cases the rates for steamers and for sailing vessels equipped with marine motors may be just about equal. The principal advantages and disadvantages of steamers and of sailing vessels without engines are as follows:

Steamers.—On an average steamers are calculated to make two to three times as fast a trip as sailing vessels. The importer can thus determine with a reasonable amount of certainty the time of arrival and has to wait less time for the cargo—two features very valuable to him. In the case of long distances, the loss of interest on cargoes while en route is another item that should be considered, especially in the case of large cargoes, and this loss is greatly diminished by the use of steamers. Lumber is frequently subject to discoloration and other kinds of deterioration while in transit; and the chance of such deterioration is much lessened by the shorter steamer voyage. In filling orders for lumber urgently needed the use of a sailing vessel is out of the question. The marine-insurance rates on the cargoes of steamers and sailing vessels differ, but no definite rule can be given. The rates depend upon many circumstances in each case, but sailing vessels have been granted less favorable rates in the past. A steamer can load and unload faster than a sailing vessel; some steamers can take on board as much as 200,000 to 400,000 feet per day, while a sailing vessel can take only a fraction of this quantity. In

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places where labor is high, the cost of loading and unloading is therefore much lower for steamer cargoes. This cost, however, is governed so largely by local conditions that no general statement can be made to cover all cases. Steamers can, furthermore, take larger cargoes, generally 500,000 to 3,000,000 or 4,000,000 feet, which in certain cases is a great advantage. Parcel shipments are largely sent in steamers because they maintain regular schedules between foreign and domestic ports.

Sailing vessels.—Sailing vessels also have their advantages, especially for the exporters. In the past the most important American export mills have owned their own tonnage, consisting of a number of schooners, but this is not the case at present. Sailing vessels are usually of smaller capacity than steamers—200,000 to 1,000,000 or 2,000,000 feet. One mill can undertake to load a whole cargo on a sailing vessel without the help of other mills. Furthermore, docking facilities are often sufficient for sailing vessels but not for steamers. There is also less liability for the importer and exporter in handling sailing-vessel cargoes. The importer does not take so big a risk in buying small sailing-vessel cargoes as in buying large steamer cargoes. In many ports of discharge the space at the importer's disposal is limited, owing to the high cost of land. It is therefore an advantage and, in many cases, a necessity for him to receive smaller cargoes. The quantity of lumber required to be discharged daily in connection with sailing vessels is much smaller than with steamers—from 30,000 feet and up, as stipulated in the charter party. The importer is therefore able to take better care of the lumber as it is unloaded. There is less breakage in sailing-vessel than in steamer cargoes. In unloading a steamer cargo the importer many times must rush through the unloading, because he is liable for heavy demurrage for each day in excess of the time allowed for discharge in the charter party. The lumber may be piled temporarily in the yard in order to get it out as quickly as possible, and later the importer must repile it at a heavy cost. When it is unloaded from sailing vessels it can be piled in the yard in the desired way at once. In filling an order for lumber to be shipped in sailing vessels the lumber exporters do not need to employ middlemen, because the cargo is not too big for them to handle alone. A saving is thus effected of the commission that must be paid to the middlemen, in cases where steamers are used and the cargo is too large for one mill to handle. It is easier to sell a small cargo than a large one and easier also to find adequate freight facilities.

FREIGHT RATES.

Freights depend upon many factors, such as the character of tonnage, facilities in ports of loading and ports of discharge, dues in these ports, destination of cargo, possibilities of obtaining return cargoes, the demand for bottoms at the port of shipment, and other conditions. While hardwoods nearly always are shipped in parcel lots, either on tramp steamers or on regular liners, softwoods are mostly shipped in full cargoes. Tonnage is usually obtained through freight brokers, but exporters in some cases take up the question directly with steamship companies or shipowners.

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The following table shows the enormous increase in freight rates from the time immediately preceding the outbreak of the war to April, 1917:

Items.	Before war.	April, 1917.
New York to Buenos Aires, Argentina:		
Parcel lots (steamer) ..... per 1,000 feet..	$17.00	[a] $55.00
Full cargo (sailing vessel) ..... do....	9.00	55.00
New York to Liverpool, England:		
Parcel lots (steamer) ..... per 100 pounds..	.225	[b] 3.00
New York to Genoa, Italy:		
Parcel lots (steamer) ..... do....	.25	5.00
New York to Port Elizabeth, South Africa:		
Parcel lots (steamer) ..... per ton of 40 cubic feet..	6.50	33.00
Gulf ports to River Plate:		
Full cargo (steamer) ..... per 1,000 feet..	12.56	(c)
Full cargo (sailing vessel) ..... do....	11.00	52.00
Pensacola to London, England:		
Full cargo (steamer) ..... do....	9.18	[d] 68.58
Gulf ports to Genoa:		
Full cargo (steamer) ..... do....	11.63	[e] 60.00
Seattle to Sydney, Australia:		
Full cargo (steamer) ..... do....	10.00	(c)
Full cargo (sailing vessel) ..... do....	9.00	30.00
Seattle to Shanghai, China:		
Full cargo (steamer) ..... do....	12.00	(c)
Full cargo (sailing vessel) ..... do....	10.00	30.00
Seattle to South Africa:		
Full cargo (sailing vessel) ..... do....	(c)	60.00
Seattle to London, England:		
Full cargo (steamer) ..... do....	27.50	(c)
Full cargo (sailing vessel) ..... do....	19.20	(c)
Seattle to Valparaiso, Chile:		
Full cargo (steamer) ..... do....	14.00	34.00
Full cargo (sailing vessel) ..... do....	11.00	32.00

[a] Plus 35 per cent.
[b] December, 1916.
[c] No quotation.
[d] January, 1917.
[e] March, 1917.

In quoting c. i. f. it has been understood that the freight charges are to be paid by the importer upon arrival of the cargo, and the exporter in making out the invoice deducts the amount of the freight. At present, however, the freight is usually prepaid. In the case of parcel-lot shipments, it is usually arranged that the ocean-transportation company cooperates with the inland-transportation company in the United States, and the railroad and ocean freight rates are paid to the ocean-transportation concern, which in turn settles with the American railroad company. Where lumber is shipped from interior points through ocean ports to foreign countries, a through bill of lading is often issued covering such shipment. Rough construction lumber and timber is frequently taken on deck, while all dressed lumber and high-grade material are loaded under deck. Deck rates are always cheaper.

MARINE INSURANCE.

The cargo must be insured against loss before the banks are willing to discount drafts, because their security is mainly in the cargo shipped. In most cases the exporter takes out this insurance, which generally includes an estimate of the importer's profit. Nearly all shipments of lumber from this country are covered by marine insurance and the premium is often included in the quotations, together with the cost of the cargo itself and the freight (c. i. f.). The factors determining the rates of marine insurance on lumber cargoes

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may be very different in various cases. The principal factor in fixing rates is the ratio of losses to sums insured. This can be found only by experience covering a period of years, and the rates of different companies vary widely, according to the companies' experience. Other conditions considered in determining the premium are the following:

(1) Whether the cargo is carried in a steamer or a sailing vessel. (The age and character of the vessel, type, place, and quality of the construction, and the vessel's suitability for the cargo are important factors. Steel and iron vessels not over 25 years old usually command lower rates than wooden vessels.)

(2) The passage under contemplation, the ports of shipment and ports of destination, respectively, facilities for handling damaged lumber cargoes at the port of destination and market conditions there, the season of the year, and the likelihood of encountering hurricanes during the passage.

(3) The place where lumber is to be stored in the vessel, whether on deck or under deck. (Deck cargoes are never insured against effects of exposure to the elements and breakage. The height of the deck load is very important, especially in this country where the amount that may be taken on deck is unlimited. Deck cargoes generally are subject to rates two to four times as high as under-deck portions.)

(4) In case of parcel-lot shipments the composition of the remainder of the cargo.

(5) Whether the full cargo is shipped or the vessel is loaded only to part of its capacity. (In case of full cargo the rates may be somewhat higher.)

(6) The type of lumber shipped, whether dressed or rough.

(7) Whether the lumber is taken on and discharged at one or more ports. (In the case of several ports for loading and discharge the rates may be higher.)

It is not customary at present to insure lumber against deterioration in transit, but several companies are willing to issue policies covering these contingencies. It is usually stated in insurance policies on lumber cargoes that no insurance will be paid unless the damage amounts to at least 3 per cent of the total amount. The unloading of the lumber in a dry and bright condition, essential to its marketing in most countries, is largely in the hands of the master of the vessel, on whom the duty devolves of taking proper measures for securing sufficient ventilation.

Foreign importers often make it a term of the contract that the insurance be placed with some foreign company, usually British. Insurance companies frequently make contracts with exporters in this country and regularly place insurance on lumber cargoes. They may agree to insure shipments made by the assured during a specified time from the moment the shipments leave the factory, store, or warehouse at the port of shipment or at some interior point until the cargo is landed at the port of destination. This is termed an open-policy agreement and the exporter is under obligation to report as soon as possible to the insurance company the policies issued. These policies are made out to the order of the exporter and indorsed by him in blank as in the case of bills of lading. Premiums

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are fixed according to a schedule inserted in the policy and are paid at stated intervals. It is impossible to give any general schedule to cover with any degree of accuracy the insurance rates for the different countries, because the rates are determined by special conditions applying to individual shipments and vary considerably not only according to these conditions but according to the importance attributed to certain conditions by different companies. At present special provisions exist regarding war risks. All premiums on lumber cargoes have advanced tremendously and in many cases are almost prohibitive.

SHIPPING DOCUMENTS.

The exporter must attach the shipping documents to the draft that he wants to discount. These documents are bills of lading and copies which are issued by the transportation company as a receipt for the lumber taken on board and which are to be forwarded to the customer. This receipt does not give any details as to the quality but merely states the quantity received. It is made out to the order of the exporter and indorsed in blank by him, so that the holder of this document is identified as the receiver of the cargo. Railway bills of lading alone are not accepted by banks as sufficient proof that the cargo has actually been shipped.

An inspection certificate is often required by customers when a regular inspection service is established at the port of loading. The tally sheet is frequently attached to this certificate and both are of vital importance to the importer, giving him a reasonable assurance that the lumber has been shipped according to specifications. They also constitute a valuable proof to the bank of the value of the cargo as security and are of great assistance to the exporter in discounting his draft.

The invoice is either sent direct to the broker or attached to the draft, sometimes under sealed cover to prevent the banks from obtaining information as to specifications, prices paid, etc. This step is especially advisable in dealing with foreign banks. The invoice does not always give the prices paid. The customer may for some reason prefer to have the invoice made out for a higher or lower amount than is actually paid, and the exporter could tamper with it in many ways. Little attention is therefore paid to this document. It is the exporter's standing that counts. In many countries other certificates are required, such as consular documents, certificates of origin, etc.

It must be borne in mind that the exporter is always responsible for the payment of the draft to the bank, and a failure to ascertain the financial standing of the importer or the broker would mean trouble and loss to the exporter.

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Part II.—DEFECTS OF PRESENT SYSTEM OF MARKETING LUMBER ABROAD.

In Part I a description has been given of the prevailing methods used in the marketing of American lumber in foreign countries. The system is described as it has grown up without organization or foresight other than that involved in the carrying on of each individual's enterprise. Now that there exists the possibility of substituting a more effective system, it becomes worth while to point out the more glaring faults and defects that inhere in the present lack of system. It is with this side of the export trade in lumber that the present section is concerned. While the criticisms gathered here apply, perhaps, with greater force to the trade with the east coast of South America and the European softwood trade, they represent the practices of certain individuals in all divisions of the American lumber trade. Occasion is taken also to point out some of the sharp practices of the foreign importer and middleman against which the American exporter has to contend.

It is understood that the dishonest methods described in the following pages are practiced by only a few unscrupulous dealers; but it is worth while to lay emphasis on these practices because they have done much to bring the American lumber trade into disrepute abroad and because they are the result, in part, of the lack of an effective inspection system and of branding. The criticisms of merely inefficient methods apply to the trade by no means without exception, and the proportion of the trade to which they apply has been decreasing in recent years. But the proportion has contributed so largely to the foreign estimate of the American lumber trade that it is to the best interests of the industry as a whole for the defects to be frankly set forth so that they may be corrected.

From the standpoint of the millman as well as from that of the national interest, the working of the present system is far from satisfactory, both in connection with the gross prices obtained for superior wood in foreign markets, considering that the long water carriage requires the shipping largely of the upper grades, and in connection with the proportion of that price paid to the manufacturer. The chief sources of this undesirable situation must be looked for in the American manufacturer's lack of appreciation of the opportunities offered by the export trade and in the haphazard mechanism for selling and delivering American lumber abroad.

It serves no good purpose not to recognize the fact that, whatever the reason, the exporters of lumber in this country, on the whole, have not acquired so favorable a reputation as have exporters of other commodities. Importers have often attributed defects in shipments to dishonest practices on the exporters' part when the cause may have been misunderstanding of orders given through middlemen or the exporters' inability to fill orders at a specified time due to reasons beyond their control. It is necessary to study conditions in the importing as well as the exporting country in order to judge the situation impartially.

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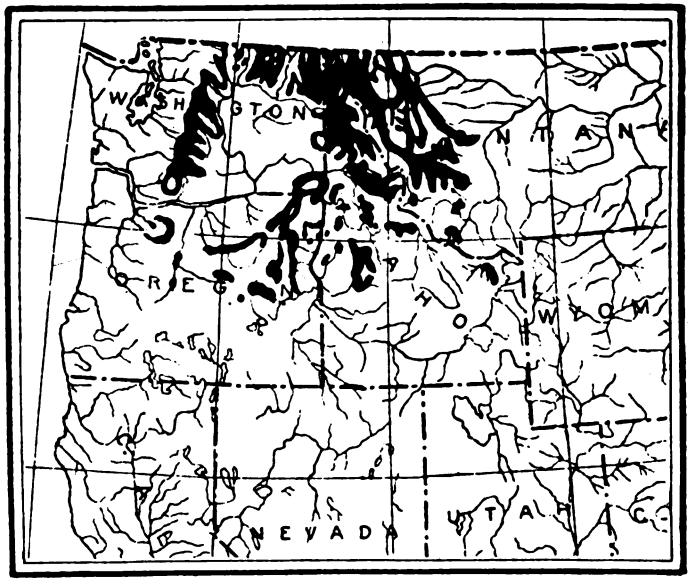
PERMANENT FOREIGN MARKETS NOT SOUGHT.

Comparatively few mills in this country have specialized in cutting for export trade or have endeavored to market their product abroad themselves. Lack of knowledge of conditions in foreign countries has made direct selling too difficult and expensive for firms that were selling lumber for consumption in foreign countries mainly to get rid of their surplus stock. The bulk of this lumber is sold at ship's side to local export merchants in this country and paid for by them in cash, or is handled on a commission basis by export agents. Usually, therefore, the manufacturer can not strictly be called an exporter and is not interested in the export business beyond delivering



Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 22.—Western-larch (*Larix occidentalis*) region.

the lumber at the port of shipment. He fills export orders in keen competition with other mills, on a price basis, gets his money, and pays little attention where his lumber goes or whether the customer (who is really his customer) beyond the seas is satisfied. Complaints, if any, must be adjusted by the export merchant who sells the lumber, inspects it before shipment, and undertakes to relieve the manufacturer of responsibility.

Although some mills have worked to build up permanent markets abroad, they have been constantly handicapped and menaced by the dumping practices of the export merchant or by the smaller mills who have either shipped through brokers or consigned their lumber direct to favorable markets in anticipation of effecting a sale while the shipment was in transit. To meet this reckless competition, the mill that was endeavoring to maintain a permanent stable market was often compelled to cut prices and after a series of such experiences would perhaps withdraw from the field.

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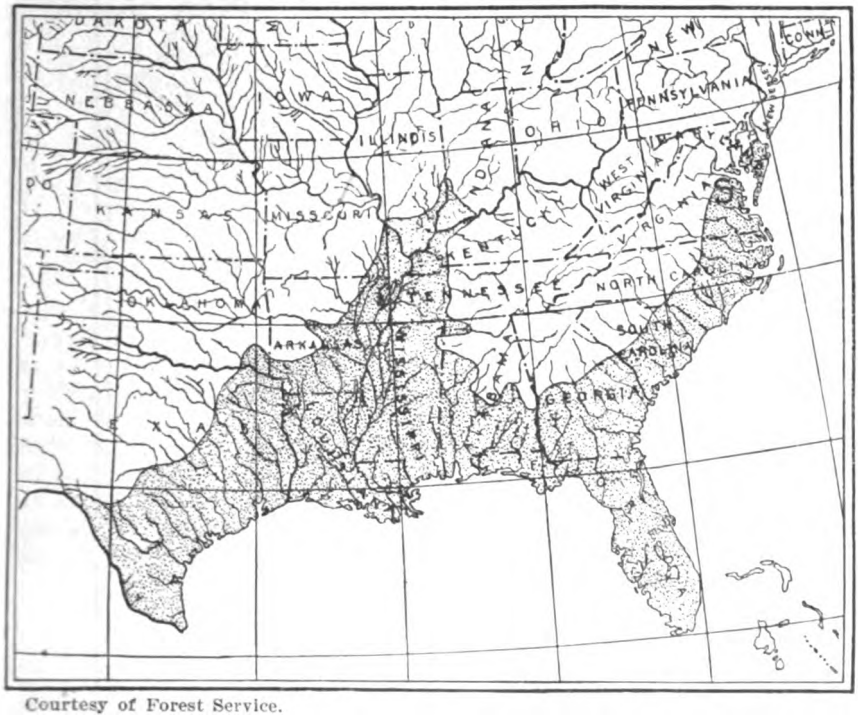
Unscrupulous lumber export merchants and a number of smaller mills have often not been interested in repeat orders. They have been content to sell one cargo and therefore not particular about the settlement of claims. Even where no question of illegitimate trade has been involved, however, American exporters have competed blindly with one another, even to cutting prices to the foreign consumer below cost. American white oak, for instance, which is known the world over for its superior quality, has frequently been sold at a loss in such a market as Argentina, where there is a big demand for wine-cask and barrel staves of white oak from the United States.



Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 23.—Bald-cypress (*Taxodium distichum*) region.

The lack of interest in permanent foreign markets doubtless accounts for a large proportion of the defective shipments contrary to specifications, which have done the greatest damage to the American export lumber trade. One or two experiences of such shipments have been sufficient in certain countries to bring into disrepute the name of American lumber exporters as a class.

DEFECTS IN MANUFACTURING METHODS.

Among the principal complaints heard in connection with American lumber shipments has been the criticism of defective cutting and seasoning. Band saws are nearly always used in American softwood mills and are well suited for the purpose in this country if operated properly. In most of the mills, however, the saws are run at exces-

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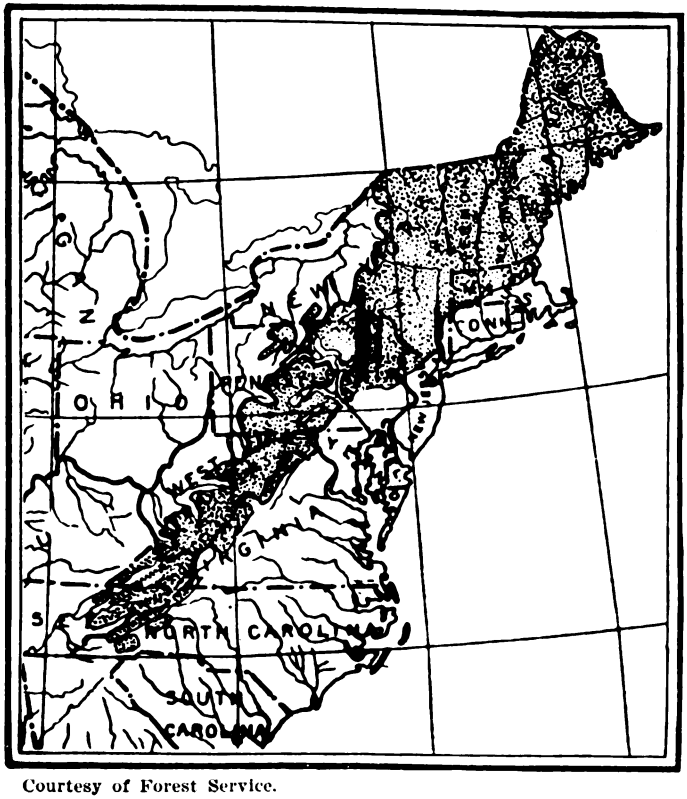
sive speed, and it has been difficult to obtain skilled filers. This applies principally to cases where double-cut band saws are used. It is contended by the mills that the material is plentiful and cheap, and that the labor is the heaviest expense in manufacturing lumber. In trimming lumber blunt saws are frequently used, giving the ends a ragged appearance. Lumber, as a rule, is cut only to even sizes; mill ends and slabs are generally burned at heavy expense. Saws of wide gauge are used, and every effort is directed to the quantity



Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 24.—Red-spruce (*Picca rubens*) region.

produced. Often little attention is paid to the quality or to the question of making much as possible out of every log. The large percentage of miscuts proves either that this class of lumber is deemed particularly suited for export or that the lumber produced by certain mills is very poorly manufactured.

The waste in the planing mills also is very great. The machines are often operated by incompetent men. The planer machines used are capable of a large output and are run at excessive speeds—sometimes as fast as 370 feet per minute—which necessarily means a chipping and tearing of the grain, with a consequent sacrifice of the grade. Rough boards perfect in quality are run through such fast planers and would have been classified as No. 1, but the chipped grain

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caused by the rotary knives often barely places them in class 2. The aim of the planing-mill superintendent is often to show the largest possible output, with but little regard to quality. In some planing mills in this country the loss through defective manufacturing of flooring has been said to be as high as 20 per cent.

The machinery used in American saw and planing mills is well constructed and capable of turning out the product very fast. It may suit the manufacturers at present, when comparatively little value is attributed to the raw material, but in the near future, with

Courtesy of Forest Service.

FIG. 25.—White-spruce (*Picea canadensis*) region.

increasing prices for stumpage, improvement in the type of machinery and in manufacturing methods will become imperative.

Frequent complaints have been heard that the lumber shipped from this country is not properly seasoned. Some foreign competitors season their product six months or more; many manufacturers in this country do not season their lumber six weeks. The shipping of green lumber means an increase in freight and a depreciation in quality on account of blueing, with consequent loss. The discount usually claimed by importers for blue lumber is $3 to $5.

DEFECTS IN SELLING METHODS.

GRADING AND INSPECTION.

Probably the worst complaints made against American lumber have been in regard to quality and have been due largely to hurried or otherwise inefficient grading or to the lack of adequate grading rules recognized by both parties to the contract.

In many American mills peculiar circumstances prevail in connection with grading lumber which necessarily affect the export conditions. While the sawmill operator generally is careful to employ an efficient sawyer in order to obtain the best possible result out of each log, he is not always so careful in the selection of a high-class grader. The grader is, however, one of the most important men in the sawmill industry because the value of the output of a mill depends largely upon his ability. In some foreign countries several graders are employed in each mill. They carefully look the stock over and turn each deal and each board before they decide how to make the

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best possible grade out of it. In this country the rule is that the lumber passes over a chain coming out of the sawmill and one grader is expected to look each piece over as it passes him. Many mills with a capacity of 100,000 feet or more a day expect the grader to work at least eight hours. It is evident that a man can do much better work of this type in the morning than he can later in the day. A man working at the speed necessary in the big mills can not render dependable service throughout the day, and this may explain some of the complaints raised as to the lack of uniform grades from several sawmills. In addition, many mills have no adequate system of checking up the work of their inspectors and graders.

It has been found that many inefficient inspectors have been employed and the inspection at the loading ports has been very superficial. The inspector, who is supposed to pass upon the quality and also to tally, frequently leaves the tallying to the workmen and depends upon their statements. Sometimes inspectors have tried to tackle two inspection jobs at a time, and some mills have taken advantage of this circumstance to ship defective lumber while the inspector was away.

The grading rules that are in use with export shipments can not possibly cover all the requirements in the different countries equally well. Where export rules are established they have been changed almost every year with the exporter's interest in view—a scheme which naturally fails to appeal to the importer, who is accustomed to buy from some competing countries according to the same specifications and grading rules to-day as he did 30 to 50 years ago. Naturally he has to pay more for his lumber than he did several decades ago, but if he desires he can receive the same grades from these countries.

It must be emphasized that some competitors of American lumbermen sell their lumber on a quality basis, while most American lumber for export is sold on price. The consumer of branded foreign lumber looks first to brands and discusses the price afterwards. American exporters generally have preferred to lower quality rather than raise prices. The superiority of the method of maintaining quality is evident not only in the results achieved by the Scandinavian lumber industry but notably also in the American cypress trade. Quality has been the aim of the American cypress manufacturers, who are among the most progressive lumbermen in the country. Their product is seldom exported in large quantities, but their grading rules have been made stricter every year with a view to giving the consumer exactly what he wants, and the price has increased accordingly. Both exporters and importers seem to be well satisfied with this policy.

It is a mistake to believe that the same quality and grades are used, for instance, in the West Indies as are required in England. Nevertheless, many of the export grading rules in effect to-day do not make provision for shipments to different countries. This failure must be attributed partly to the lack of cooperation among the exporters and importers and partly to the lack of knowledge of foreign conditions on the part of some exporters, and an unwillingness to communicate their experiences to one another. In every

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way the export lumber industry has been handicapped through the unwillingness of the lumbermen to cooperate.

It is frequently heard in foreign markets that importers expect a certain percentage of clears to be obtained from lower grades. Such an expectation could arise only from inefficient American marketing methods. Many other instances prove that the present grading rules are not satisfactory. With due regard to the splendid work done by some of the associations in this country to establish uniform grading rules, it must be said that the work is not yet satisfactory in all respects. A curious instance was reported some time ago by one of the lumber associations. After they had sent out their grading rules, properly translated, to a number of neighboring countries, a letter was received from a lumber importer who, greatly provoked, said that his customers never knew that knots were defects until they received the grading rules stating this fact.

In some countries there is strong objection to blue lumber, especially in finish and flooring. In these countries flooring is waxed and must be absolutely bright in order to be of service. In other countries, however, flooring is painted or covered with linoleum. The grading rules do not have any special grade for blue lumber, but simply mix blue lumber with the lower grades, although the material otherwise may be very good, or an allowance of $3 to $5 per 1,000 feet is usually given on the parcel that turns out blue. In some countries pitch is strongly objected to; in other countries it is considered a valuable property for various purposes. No efforts have been made by any American grading rules to take advantage of this feature, and the importers benefit by this lack of knowledge.

The grading rules are frequently too elastic and give the export merchant or agent too much latitude in filling orders. The exporters are therefore in a position to "make grades" according to price. The importer frequently states that there is no trouble in buying what he wants, but that the trouble is in obtaining what he buys.

It is very difficult, however, under the present circumstances, to export lumber of a uniform grade. The lumber export merchant or export agent makes up the cargoes from many mills, and it is not easy, when buying exclusively on price, to secure a uniform grade from various sources. Many exporters have been accustomed to ship lumber above grade ("sweeten the grades") with a view to obtaining subsequent orders. This practice has been severely criticised because the lumber importer expects the next time to receive the same good quality. If he does not he will be dissatisfied and will make claims based on the quality previously received.

SELLING LUMBER UNSORTED.

In some cases lumber is sold unsorted, when the lumber exporter does not know the exact requirements of the importer. In this country the timber varies greatly in quality in the different sections, even in the same territory. Frequently it has not been possible to fill a repeat order and dissatisfaction has resulted. Furthermore, the sawmills marketing just one grade of lumber unbranded are not likely to realize the average price for all grades. It is more likely

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that they will receive a price corresponding to the lower grades. From the economic standpoint the marketing of unsorted lumber would not seem to be profitable.

BRANDING.

Certain other lumber-exporting countries have for years stood back of their products by branding their lumber, but American exporters have not adopted this sound business policy to any extent in the great softwood trade. When the importer buys through an export merchant he does not know where the lumber originates. The export merchant makes up a cargo from lots bought from the different mills and it is impossible for the importer to distinguish the lots from the various mills on account of the absence of brands, or to ascertain whether his request to obtain stock from certain territories has been complied with.

Many mills that export their own branded product buy from other mills and trade-mark the purchase as their own lumber. This practice is misleading to the importer when he specifies a product from a certain mill and pays a special price for it. However, as long as the exporter can maintain the standard of quality, there may not be serious objection to this practice.

DEFECTS IN SHIPPING METHODS.

FAILURE TO FOLLOW SPECIFICATIONS.

Complaints are often heard that American lumber does not come according to specifications. Miscuts have been thrown into export shipments, though such lumber is considered even worse than undersized lumber. Upon receiving miscuts the importer must dress them down to the nearest dimension in demand and this is a source of additional expense. The exporters sometimes substitute one dimension for another, thinking that an excess in quantity in one parcel would make up for the deficiency in another. The importers do not take the same view. There is always a specific demand for certain sizes, and if the exporter neglects to ship them, the importer must procure them through resawing deals or timber—an expensive and wasteful method.

While the greatest foreign competitors of the United States, through superior manufacturing methods, with mills specializing in supplying stock for different markets, are able to cut their lumber according to both metric and English measurements, mills in this country, as far as can be ascertained, can cut only to English measurements. The setworks of American band saws, edgers, and trimmers are adjusted to inch measurement, and it would require a new adjustment of the setwork to saw to exact sizes according to metric measurements. Besides, most of the mills base their output on the domestic demand, all of which is specified in inches. This is a most unfortunate feature, which causes waste of material because the metric system can not always be expressed in exact equivalents of 1 inch or its multiples. In order to obtain dimensions as close to the metric measurements as possible the importer frequently orders odd sizes.

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In this country even sizes only are generally cut, and great difficulty is experienced in obtaining odd dimensions. Many orders are turned down because the logs as they are sawed in this country would not allow any odd size at a reasonable cost owing to the fact that it would "spoil the square" when sawing. It is difficult for the importer to understand this problem because he does not know American methods of manufacturing. He frequently attributes the refusal of an order for odd sizes to stubbornness on the part of the American manufacturer.

Some exporters, export merchants, and export agents, however, have advertised the fact that they have connections with mills specializing in this kind of material and have taken orders at fancy prices per 1,000 feet for whole cargoes because the specifications included a certain percentage of odd sizes. In filling such orders they have sometimes totally disregarded the difficult dimensions. Instead of shipping, for instance, 1⅛ by 4 inch stock they have shipped 1 by 4 inch stock and invoiced it as 1⅛ by 4 inch, or they have shipped miscuts—1⅛ by 4 inches, etc. If the importer complained, he was informed that if 1⅛ by 4 inch stock was shipped instead of 1⅛ by 4 inch stock, the shipper or his agent would not charge him for the three-eighths of an inch shipped in excess. If miscuts were shipped and the lumber measured 1 inch at one end and 1⅛ inches at the other, it was easy for an unscrupulous exporter to figure out that the importer had received even more board feet than the 1⅛ by 4 inch stock would have yielded, and that he should not complain.

DISREGARD OF SHIPPING INSTRUCTIONS.

It has happened that in spite of importers' strict orders shipping instructions have been disregarded. Many contracts state that no loading shall take place during rain and that barges shall be covered with tarpaulins, but such specific instructions have not always been followed. When, as is sometimes the case, an exporter has seemed to be chiefly interested in obtaining his money as quickly as possible by drawing a draft on his broker as soon as the cargo is loaded, he has preferred to load the lumber even during rain and has not cared to go to the additional expense of providing tarpaulins for the barges. The cleating of thin stock, which is necessary for the delivery of lumber in good condition, is likewise overlooked in some instances.

Complaint has been made by importers that the various dimensions sometimes come mixed in the cargo and that it is difficult to separate them when unloading. Bills of lading, too, may be made out for the number of pieces of "timber and lumber" combined, and the transportation company in such cases is relieved of considerable responsibility because the importer can not definitely ascertain whether a deficit in the number of pieces represents timbers or boards.

SHORTAGES IN LUMBER CARGOES.

Serious complaints are heard regarding shortages in American lumber shipments. The following table from a report by Special Agent Roger E. Simmons shows, for 65 shipments, the discrepancies

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between quantities given on bills of lading and quantities obtained by tally in the port of discharge (Buenos Aires):

Shipments.	Bill of lading.	Measurement at destination.	Difference.	
			More than bill of lading.	Less than bill of lading.
	Feet.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*
No. 1	2,381,132	2,291,988	.....	89,144
No. 2	907,789	902,103	.....	5,686
No. 3	1,229,929	1,223,981	.....	5,948
No. 4	1,475,430	1,433,592	.....	41,838
No. 5	1,102,666	1,078,788	.....	23,878
No. 6	2,530,983	2,522,405	.....	8,578
No. 7	837,230	825,267	.....	11,963
No. 8	770,068	764,192	.....	5,876
No. 9	657,450	661,887	4,437	.....
No. 10	889,823	883,499	.....	6,324
No. 11	1,235,054	1,219,974	.....	15,080
No. 12	2,154,497	2,146,140	.....	8,357
No. 13	1,152,064	1,133,065	.....	18,999
No. 14	1,215,805	1,203,271	.....	12,534
No. 15	2,603,080	2,542,332	.....	60,748
No. 16	972,102	964,667	.....	7,435
No. 17	1,100,666	1,081,966	.....	18,700
No. 18	854,134	843,083	.....	11,051
No. 19	703,892	697,989	.....	5,903
No. 20	1,061,639	1,057,952	.....	3,687
No. 21	923,180	906,983	.....	16,197
No. 22	2,407,312	2,349,836	.....	57,476
No. 23	1,548,198	1,512,794	.....	35,404
No. 24	1,538,498	1,490,360	.....	48,138
No. 25	890,416	880,178	.....	10,238
No. 26	1,983,851	1,952,480	.....	31,371
No. 27	2,016,210	1,982,150	.....	34,060
No. 28	2,059,389	1,983,100	.....	76,289
No. 29	2,037,569	1,991,305	.....	46,264
No. 30	1,151,316	1,131,773	.....	19,543
No. 31	2,582,012	2,555,381	.....	26,631
No. 32	877,998	865,209	.....	12,689
No. 33	937,075	922,382	.....	15,693
No. 34	763,031	750,472	.....	12,559
No. 35	1,893,695	1,842,246	.....	51,449
No. 36	1,050,278	1,022,007	.....	28,271
No. 37	884,674	878,494	.....	6,180
No. 38	1,908,789	1,861,428	.....	37,361
No. 39	1,054,047	1,044,622	.....	9,425
No. 40	948,187	925,080	.....	23,107
No. 41	1,197,000	1,167,333	.....	29,667
No. 42	1,982,270	1,908,824	.....	73,446
No. 43	1,764,008	1,752,126	.....	11,882
No. 44	1,265,005	1,256,493	.....	9,512
No. 45	661,863	662,075	212	.....
No. 46	1,095,372	1,089,431	.....	5,941
No. 47	771,874	764,202	.....	7,672
No. 48	779,890	774,125	.....	5,765
No. 49	1,451,947	1,437,330	.....	14,617
No. 50	1,886,167	1,889,881	3,714	.....
No. 51	833,743	806,131	.....	27,612
No. 52	2,017,002	1,984,082	.....	32,920
No. 53	1,835,666	1,809,953	.....	25,713
No. 54	2,277,604	2,257,526	.....	20,078
No. 55	1,918,019	1,941,761	23,742	.....
No. 56	2,340,095	2,284,348	.....	55,747
No. 57	2,311,781	2,304,826	.....	6,955
No. 58	2,107,806	2,057,568	.....	50,238
No. 59	2,133,757	2,098,937	.....	34,820
No. 60	2,652,107	2,539,036	.....	113,071
No. 61	2,237,902	2,181,270	.....	56,632
No. 62	2,217,087	2,280,827	63,740	.....
No. 63	1,000,881	988,823	.....	12,058
No. 64	2,293,851	2,241,772	.....	52,079
No. 65	2,294,769	2,234,012	.....	60,757

In making out the customhouse declaration the importer must give the exact amount of lumber received. If the slightest suspicion is harbored against the importer the customhouse authorities may in

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many countries compel him to unload the lumber and pile it on the dock, each dimension and each length separately, so as to facilitate the counting. The lumber may remain on the docks for weeks without the importer being able to dispose of it, until the customhouse authorities deem fit to effect the inspection. A certain margin is always allowed, but when more or less lumber is received than is allowed by the margin, a heavy fine is imposed and the cost of counting is charged against the importer. Such charges vary considerably but may in some cases be as high as $1,000.

LUMBER IN TRANSSHIPMENT.

Lumber shipped from this country frequently suffers while in transit, because no method has been devised to take care of the lumber while it is waiting for facilities in the port of transshipment. Such lumber has been seen damaged by water and otherwise exposed to the elements and must necessarily be the object of complaint even if it was originally shipped in good condition.

FAULTS OF MIDDLEMEN.

TAMPERING WITH GRADES AND SPECIES.

The absence of brands has caused dissatisfaction and complaints. Complaints regarding quality are frequently made, and it has been reported that some export merchants and agents buy one quality and sell another. Naturally no reputable concern would engage in this practice, but there have been unreliable merchants and agents with whom such practices are common. They have not only tampered with the grades, but they have also tampered with the species, buying one species and selling it for another. In case of complaint the agents have simply referred the customer to the manufacturer or exporter, stating that the agents can not be held responsible for the quality. The industry can prevent this tampering with the grades and species by its unscrupulous members when it adopts the methods of safeguarding forest products that have proved successful in many other lines.

DEFECTIVE SHIPMENTS.

Controversies that have arisen regarding defective shipments have frequently been referred to American consuls for adjustment. The following is an extract from a letter written by one of the American consular officers in Spain, immediately previous to the war:

> My first knowledge of the case was obtained when the shipper's representative and one of the importers (there were three) called at the consulate seeking advice in order to reach an amicable settlement. The facts were so palpable to the shipper's representative after an inspection of the lumber that his only concern was to arrange for arbitration with as little delay as possible and secure the best possible terms for his principal. His worst fear was that his business (lumber broker) would be seriously injured, although the shipper concerned had previously made but one consignment to this district.
>
> Each party named an arbitrator who in due course gave a verdict in favor of the two importers (the third buyer had refused his share of the lumber and was out of pocket because, as I recall, his draft had not been presented for acceptance). The largest buyer was awarded an indemnity of £110 on an

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order amounting to nearly £1,100; and the other £80 on a total value of £700. In both of these cases the shipper was protected by bank acceptances, which were ultimately paid.

The lumber was purchased and shipped from the United States, and I was informed that the shipper was a speculator, not a manufacturer of lumber. The contract price was £14 per standard (1,980 superficial feet) c. i. f. Valencia. In discussing the case with me the agent said his principal authorized him to arbitrate in accordance with the terms of the contract, and even offered an indemnity of £25, which the buyers refused; but later on declined to recognize the arbitrators' decision or make any allowance whatever.

On returning from a vacation a few days ago I interviewed the principal importer concerned as to the progress of the case and was informed that the only development was a letter from the shipper in which the buyers were characterized as thieves and robbers.

These are the important facts in the case as related to me and as they came to my notice in connection with the fulfillment of my official duties. I have no reason to question any of them.

While the case cited is especially flagrant, somewhat similar methods have been practiced by certain American lumber exporters in other instances, and these practices have had so unfortunate an effect upon the foreign estimate of American lumber exporters as a class that they should devise some means of effective regulation of export methods.

LACK OF RESPONSIBILITY.

The question of responsibility naturally comes up in many cases and serious complaints have been heard from importers that the exporters and agents on this side do not always enjoy the best reputation in this respect. As manufacturers always are more or less dependent on other conditions than the export trade, those complaints will mainly concern export merchants and the many middlemen.

The export merchant can stay in business without the necessity of having a large capital. He can discount his drafts in the banks, and the expenses for conducting an office are very small. This has placed a great many merchants in this business and competition is very keen. In order to do business the export merchant must generally establish connections with a foreign broker who is in a position to secure the business of the importer, which the exporter himself is unable to obtain. The importer frequently claims that it is a difficult task to start proceedings against the exporters in this country because the importers are not familiar with conditions here and a lawsuit of this kind always involves considerable expense. Besides, the limited capital of the export merchants does not always encourage the spending of money in this way. A criticism lodged against a number of export merchants is that their capital is not in proportion to the amount of business transacted.

Many examples can be given to illustrate the lack of responsibility on the part of certain export merchants. A foreign concern started proceedings against an export merchant in this country, claiming that the merchant had taken an order for one quality, shipped a lower grade, and invoiced the shipment according to specification. The importer was unable to obtain judgment against the export merchant on this ground but started proceedings against him for using the mails to defraud the public. The export merchant was convicted and compelled to serve a term in the penitentiary.

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Cases are known where export merchants have answered threats of legal proceedings by stating that the importer was very welcome to sue them but that their capital was so limited that it would not cover the cost of having them convicted.

Several merchants, after taking orders for odd dimensions, have shipped miscuts and even sizes. There have been other dishonest practices, partly to the detriment of the importers and partly to the detriment of the insurance companies. Export merchants in quoting a c. i. f. price frequently have taken a chance on obtaining freight later on. If it is found on filling the order that tonnage is not available at the rate anticipated or that the price of lumber has advanced sufficiently to make it desirable not to fill the order, they have sometimes preferred to break the contract, and the importer has found that no indemnification could be obtained owing to the lack of financial backing on the part of the export merchant concerned.

Export merchants with small capital who have taken too many contracts at one time have sometimes gone into bankruptcy in order to avoid loss by filling the contracts at the advanced prices, and in many such cases they have resumed operations later with a slight addition to their former name. Some of the reliable export merchants have registered their disapproval of such practices by advertising the fact that they have not failed.

The export merchant sometimes fails to secure tonnage at the time specified in the contract, and the delay is often unavoidable; but there is no question that some speculation is carried on in obtaining lower freight rates by postponing shipments.

To the importer these practices are most annoying. If the export merchant breaks his contract it is always because the prices have advanced or freights are higher than when he entered into the contract with the importer. It therefore means that the importer must make a new contract based on the higher prices.

If the export merchant would conduct his business only on the commission basis it is believed that these practices would be checked to a certain extent. Under present conditions many of them are engaged in a business of a highly speculative nature without sufficient funds to sustain a loss. Moreover, when several middlemen are employed between exporter and importer, other than export agent and broker, the responsibility is so atomized that in case the goods delivered are not according to specifications, the importer seldom has any redress unless he has secured a personal guaranty from the foreign broker. These conditions combined have caused foreigners to class some of the American export lumber merchants and agents among the most irresponsible people in the export business. The reliable concerns, which, of course, are in the great majority, find themselves hampered in their activities by the bad repute into which the unscrupulous merchants and agents have brought their business.

CLAIMS.

American exporters have been severely criticized for unwillingness to settle claims. This unwillingness has had its origin (1) to a

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slight extent, in the sharp practices of a few American exporters; (2) to a much greater extent, in the misunderstandings that are apt to arise when buyer and seller are far distant from each other; and (3) in the activities of the professional complainers, or "chicanneurs" in foreign countries, whose trickery is well known in the lumber business, but whose guilt in particular instances it is sometimes difficult or expensive to prove. The settlement of claims has often been unsatisfactory to the exporters, except to the few who have their own representatives abroad.

Proximity to the markets has made it much easier for the European lumber exporters both to prevent misunderstandings and to clear them up when they arose. American exporters are far away from the principal markets, where conditions are strange to them and where it is difficult to exercise effective control over the settlement of claims. The chicanneurs abroad make a profit out of lodging unjust claims in cases where such practices can be effected without any danger of having a reinspection made by the exporter or his agent. This is detrimental not only to the exporter but also to the whole American lumber export trade because the allowance granted is used by these chicanneurs to undersell other bona fide importers. Examples are quoted where complaints were made even before the cargo arrived.

For instance, two importers in Italy buy two cargoes of American lumber through an English broker with no representative in that territory. Upon arrival, one makes a complaint that part of the cargo arrived in poor condition and below grade. He obtains an allowance of $3 per 1,000 feet by threatening the broker that he will buy through some other firm next time if his request is not complied with. The amount of the claim may not justify the broker in investigating the case, and he agrees to settle the matter on behalf of the shippers. With the advantage in price of $3 per 1,000 feet, this importer is in a position to undersell his bona fide competitor, and once successful in this method, he frequently repeats these practices. If he is unable to obtain quotations from the same broker, there are always others anxious to comply with the request of the shippers whom they represent, to the end of selling at almost any price, because the shippers must dispose of their stock regardless of cost.

Another class of unjust claims is frequently made. An importer who has bought a cargo of American lumber at current market prices receives his lumber at the same time as the arrival of a cargo sent on consignment. He can buy the lumber shipped on consignment at a considerably lower price than the lumber he had ordered, and it is easy for him, under these circumstances, to criticize the lumber bought from the exporters. To compete with other importers he makes a complaint, which is often unintentionally unjust.

Claims are so frequent that the export merchant nearly always counts on a certain allowance to be paid on every shipment. He may sometimes prefer to ship defective grades and pay an indemnification instead of filling the order according to specifications. In the letter previously quoted regarding a shipment of lumber to Spain it will be clearly seen that the export merchant first offered a certain amount in settlement for the case even without investi-

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gation, knowing that the goods shipped were defective, and later refused to accommodate the customers even though the contract stated that the decision of the arbitrators should be final.

The absence of brands makes it extremely difficult for the exporter's representative abroad to determine whether the parcel on which the claim is made really has been taken from the cargo shipped by the exporter or from other cargoes. The absence of identification marks regarding the grade makes it difficult to ascertain whether the importer has not made a claim for defective shipments, for instance, of first quality and has submitted for reinspection second quality or mixed firsts and seconds.

In settling claims for blue lumber the exporters frequently allege that the blueing has occurred while the lumber was in transit and it is often difficult for the importer to prove the contrary. A more serious matter is that the lumber is generally paid for on acceptance given by the importer before the cargo arrives and he has to accept the cargo. There are many advocates in this country of the quoting of cash against documents in American port. There may be good reasons for recommending these terms in other industries, but the status of the lumber industry and the conditions of competition do not warrant the demand for cash. Defective shipments have been too common and orders are too apt to turn to foreign competitors who extend credit for four months or longer, have an established reputation, and have developed and maintained satisfactory grades, branding practices, and methods of settling claims.

DISADVANTAGES OF CONSIGNMENTS.

The practice of consigning lumber to foreign countries has been described in the first part of this report. The consignment practice is the most undesirable way of disposing of lumber for export and seldom yields the expected profit. Moreover, it is a most unscientific way of doing business and may be considered unfair to other exporters of lumber.

The great distance from the market makes this business very hazardous to this country. The consignor is absolutely in the hands of the consignee, and many instances are known where the consignee has taken advantage of the consignor's lack of knowledge of market conditions to encourage him to consign lumber at times when there would seem to be no possibility of marketing the lumber at a profit. The simultaneous arrival of several cargoes sent on consignment would bring the market down and thus serve the purpose of the consignee. The cargo once on the other side, the consignor is at the mercy of the consignee.

The usual period within which the sale of a consigned cargo is guaranteed—six months—is entirely too long to be satisfactory to the consignor. It is remarkable that a lumber exporter who is unwilling to grant the necessary credit to the bona fide customer abroad, even with good prospects for building up a profitable trade and a permanent market, is frequently consigning lumber worth thousands of dollars to agents comparatively unknown to him. It has been said that the consignment business is "the curse of the hardwood trade." It is little more than a gamble, with small chance of profit for the consignor.

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DEFECTS IN BUYING METHODS.

LACK OF DEFINITENESS IN ORDERS.

Importers often have not sufficient knowledge of conditions prevailing in this country to specify what dimensions they want. It is commonly believed that there is such an abundance of large timbers in this country that it matters little in the price whether lengths of 30 feet or 10 feet are ordered. On the other hand, the lumber exporter, the agent, or the broker seldom tries to correct this misunderstanding in order to dispose of short lengths. It has been mentioned that European lumbermen export lengths of 6 inches and up and have educated their customers to order such lengths instead of ordering long boards and then resawing them. American lumber 30 feet and more in length is frequently halved in order to obtain the desired short dimensions, without any regard to the waste.

The average export specification does not take the percentage of the "log run" that it should. The lower grades especially are not marketed abroad as they should be and competition with other countries is met by shipping the upper grades where medium and lower grades would do. The average prices for these higher grades are about the same as those obtained for competing lumber from other countries.

Importers frequently do not indicate the exact quantities wanted. They specify a certain number of carloads of lumber without taking into consideration that the American car may be three or four times as large as the car used in their country. If prices are satisfactory to the exporter, he has often shipped as much lumber as possible by using cars of large capacity. On the other hand, if prices are against him, he has a plausible excuse for shipping a small quantity.

Confusion often arises from the fact that many species of American lumber have different names in different countries. The terms American oak, white pine, yellow pine, etc., are often used by importers in their specifications and may give the exporter the choice of different species to be shipped; for instance, he has more than 50 species of oak, greatly varying in quality, from which to make his selection.

Many importers are not specific enough in stating the grades. For instance, in many countries, it is customary to order "limpio," which is translated as "clear" lumber. This does not always mean, however, that the lumber must not contain knots. Such orders frequently pass through the hands of many middlemen not conversant with the grades or requirements in the country where the order originates, and the call for "clear lumber" results in the quotation of very high prices and the loss of the order through competition with other countries that understand the conditions. Probably what the importer wants is "merchantable," but he does not know this term and the grading rules. One of the many middlemen between the exporter and importer has sometimes blamed the exporter for having shipped deficient grades, while the mistake may have been due to the middleman's own unfamiliarity with grades and also to defective translation. In such cases, however, the middleman has received his commission and the exporter has been called upon for settlement.

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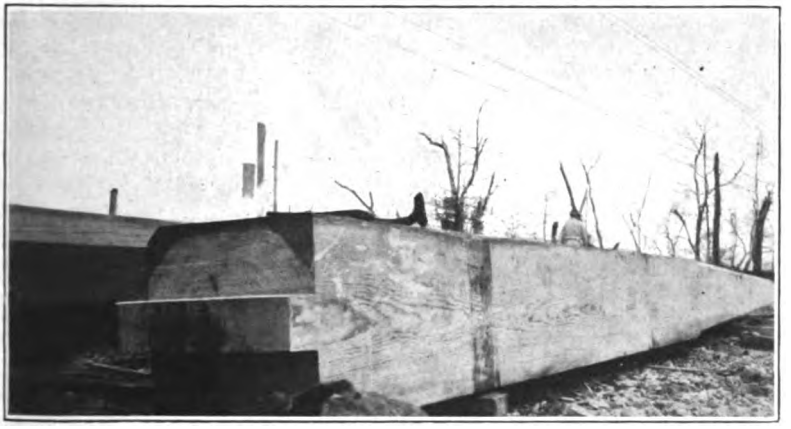

FIG. 26.—DOUGLAS-FIR SPAR.

FIG. 27.—HOW CAREFUL EXPORTERS COVER BARGES WITH TARPAULIN AND BRAND LUMBER.

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Courtesy of Great Southern Lumber Co.

FIG. 28.—LONG-LEAF-YELLOW-PINE TIMBER BRANDED WITH MANUFACTURER'S TRADE-MARK.

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EXCESSIVE PROFITS OF IMPORTERS.

It is not generally known that the profit on American lumber in foreign countries obtained by importers, wholesalers, and retailers is much greater than the profit derived from the sale of foreign lumber. It is reported that Douglas fir, for instance, is sold in an English colony at a profit of 4 cents per linear foot (3 by 9 inch planks), while Baltic planks of the same dimensions bring the dealer only ½ to 1 cent profit per linear foot. It is evident that such excessive profits on American lumber greatly limit its sale in foreign countries. This excess profit may be attributed to the fact that Scandinavian lumber can be imported in parcel lots on regular steamship lines plying direct between Scandivanian countries and the countries making the purchases. Americans have lacked the advantages that direct steamship lines offer, and the importers' risk and expense in buying full cargoes have been offset by higher prices to the consumer.

DISADVANTAGES OF BROKER SYSTEM.

The business of the European lumber brokers depends entirely upon their reputation and American lumber exporters can therefore expect a "square deal" from the brokers. Other conditions inherent in the broker system of marketing lumber, however, are not so favorable to the American exporter. The extensive business of the European brokers necessitates their handling almost any kind of wood products in order to satisfy their customers. This feature may be advantageous to the importer but is often a handicap to the exporter. The broker merely sells wood to suit any purpose. He is not likely to advertise or advocate the use of any special kind of lumber to the exclusion of other species unless he is financially interested in doing so.

If the importer asks for quotations on Scotch pine, the broker can satisfy him on this point. If he asks for American pine the broker can submit quotations on the various species. In short, he is simply interested in his commission and it does not concern him who supplies the lumber, of the companies that he represents. He does not deem it suitable for his purpose to push the sale of one species in preference to others, for such a proceeding would place him in a bad position with the other exporters. The importer asks for quotations on certain species and the broker does not try to influence his choice. If he recommended certain species, which turned out to be unsatisfactory, the broker would feel a certain responsibility.

In addition to representing various species of lumber used for the same purposes, the broker often represents several exporters of the same class of lumber, even from the same territory. The broker is able to bargain with different exporters in order to obtain a low price, but such an arrangement can not give satisfaction in the long run to American lumber exporters, who cheapen their product by always being willing to sell. The broker may be unable to obtain quotations from the Scandinavian countries, for instance, because the exporters in these countries consider the price offered by the importers unsatisfactory and can sell their products to better advantage elsewhere. American exporters, however, are nearly always willing to sell at any price and adjust the quality accordingly.

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The broker is frequently called upon to act as the exporter's representative in the case of claims for export shipments. He may at times lean to the importer's side, as it is often more important to him to maintain a clientele of importers than to be on good terms with the exporters. It is always easy for the brokers to obtain business from an exporter if they can prove that they have the clientele necessary to provide a profitable business.

It is not particularly creditable to the enterprise of American exporters that they are almost wholly dependent upon foreign brokers for the disposal of their stock. This can not be explained on the ground that these brokers are financially interested in the American mills or export companies. It is due simply to the exporter's lack of knowledge of conditions in other countries and to the reputation that has been given to the industry by its unscrupulous members. European lumber brokers do not perform any services in selling the American product that the American lumber exporters could not eventually assume.

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Part III.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE EXPORT LUMBER TRADE.

Some American exporters have gone a long way toward a satisfactory solution of the difficulties that beset the export lumber trade of the United States. But the methods of the Scandinavians, their chief competitors in the softwood trade, who have been exporting for centuries, are the most notable for a high standard of efficiency. Conditions in the Scandinavian countries, it is true, differ materially from those of the United States; but the methods that have brought success there, it is believed, could with advantage be adapted to the American industry. Conditions in different sections of this country also vary considerably, and many of the proposals offered here may be neither practicable nor desirable in all parts of the United States. A detailed plan for the improvement of the lumber business can not, of course, be given in this study. The suggestions made here merely indicate some lines that might be followed up with profit.

Few lumber manufacturers realize what a vast field the export market affords. The foreign customer seldom knows the manufacturer of the American lumber that he receives, and the manufacturer himself has taken little interest in ascertaining the requirements of his customer. Practically no campaign in the foreign field has been conducted by American manufacturers to extend the markets for their products. Competition has been of the most profitless kind because instead of opening up new fields, American exporters have preferred to follow the lines of least resistance and have sold their goods in highly competitive markets where American lumber is already known.

As an example of a foreign market capable of expansion the recent history of the Cuban lumber trade may be cited. Since 1901, when the lumber exporters began to take a more active interest in this island as an export field and made themselves personally acquainted with conditions there, the exports of lumber had almost trebled up to 1914. The value of exports of lumber from the United States to Cuba from 1901 to 1914 were as follows: 1901—$799,000; 1902—$932,000; 1903—$820,000; 1904—$1,206,000; 1905—$1,603,000; 1906—$2,460,000; 1907—$2,331,000; 1908—$1,871,000; 1909—$1,242,000; 1910—$2,316,000; 1911—$2,210,000; 1912—$2,183,000; 1913—$2,566,000; 1914—$2,345,000. The markets of the other West Indian islands also have been successfully cultivated.

These markets are particularly profitable because they require a lower grade than is exported to other countries, especially Europe, and enable the lumber manufacturer to export a large percentage of "log-run" material. There is always a market for clears and upper grades, especially when they are disposed of at almost the same prices as competitors obtain for their merchantable grade. This success in the West Indian lumber markets should be followed up in the markets of Central and South America and in other countries. It would without doubt be possible to find a profitable market for the

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lower grades of American woods in these Republics, which are about to enter upon a new era of development and progress. It is to be hoped that American lumber exporters will understand that nothing is gained by shipping clears where common lumber would answer the purpose and will avoid mistakes made in other countries. In Australia, for instance, American lumber of select grade is reported to have been used for fences and similar purposes.

INCREASING F. O. B. VALUES OF AMERICAN LUMBER.

One proposition stands out as incontrovertible and of the widest application. Regardless of whether the number of board feet exported annually increases or not, the f. o. b. values of the units of lumber shipped to foreign countries are now and have been in the past far too low and should be increased.

The following figures show the average annual export prices of sawed lumber of all grades and species f. o. b. United States port in the fiscal years ended June 30, 1892 to 1916:

	Per 1,000 feet.		Per 1,000 feet.		Per 1,000 feet.
1892	$16.32	1901	$18.25	1910	$21.83
1893	15.32	1902	18.01	1911	21.54
1894	16.27	1903	19.67	1912	22.14
1895	15.05	1904	20.05	1913	24.30
1896	14.56	1905	19.08	1914	23.94
1897	14.91	1906	21.34	1915	22.25
1898	15.28	1907	24.55	1916	23.76
1899	15.49	1908	23.00	1892–1916	19.41
1900	16.94	1909	21.40		

An increase in export prices may be brought about by more careful manufacture, by a higher degree of manufacture, by better organization of the export trade, and by the adoption and maintenance of higher standards in commercial dealings with foreign customers. This has been the trend of the lumber business in other countries and is the inevitable line of development in the United States, as gradually the value of the annual cut comes into equilibrium with the value of the annual growth.

MORE CAREFUL MANUFACTURE.

Something has already been said about the necessity of more careful manufacture, both to cut to the exact sizes ordered and to eliminate waste. Increased knowledge of foreign markets and foreign competition will force the adoption to a certain extent of the competitors' methods, while the increased cost of stumpage and domestic competition will gradually drive out of the industry those who continue to waste usable material.

More efficient methods are necessary in manufacturing lumber. The competitors of the American lumber industry exercise the great-

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est care to avoid miscuts and mismeasurements. Moreover, they always cut the lumber in excess of the actual size desired by the customer and allow it to dry for six months or more, at the end of which time it has shrunk to the desired dimensions. American 6-inch lumber, for instance, has been at a disadvantage because it actually measures about 5⅝ inches, while the competing lumber is actually 6 inches.* A close inspection should be made of seasonal lumber immediately before shipment, and it should then be trimmed to the exact sizes. It must be borne in mind that many countries allow only 2 inches' margin in length in connection with the customhouse declaration.

With the increasing scarcity of stumpage, manufacturers in this country must change their wasteful methods of sawing and trimming lumber. In trimming lumber it is important that only sharp saws should be used. In other countries gang saws are principally used, and it is claimed that they are capable of sawing to exact sizes with less waste than other saws, although they do not cut the clears so easily as band saws.

In grading it would pay to employ more men than are employed in most American sawmills. The cost of such extra men would soon be amply repaid by the saving of clear lumber that they could effect. In one of the most progressive mills on the Pacific coast signs are posted all around the plant reading, "Save the clears," and special care is taken in grading, inspecting, and handling the lumber.

In the planing mills similar improvements could be introduced. Their principal fault is the excessive speed at which the lumber is run through the planers. The use of planers with fixed knives is worth consideration, as they are regarded as one of the reasons for successful Scandinavian competition with American planing-mill products. It would amply repay some mills in this country to specialize in cutting to metric measurements, for there are always many customers abroad who would be willing to pay a premium on lumber cut in this way. Furthermore, the lumber should not be cut to even sizes only, if the waste of retrimming is to be checked.

HIGHER DEGREE OF MANUFACTURE.

In Norway the exportation of logs and rough lumber was not considered very important immediately before the war compared with several years previous. For some years past Norway has specialized in the exportation of manufactured or semimanufactured wood products, thereby increasing the value of the total wood exports. The other lumber-exporting countries of Europe are following the example of Norway. The exports from Norway of sawed lumber, logs, etc., manufactured and semimanufactured wood products, wood pulp, and paper and cardboard were as follows in the last 15 years.

* A suggestion that the American smaller standard sizes be accepted abroad is discussed in Appendix A.

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Years.	Sawed lumber, timber, logs.[a]		Manufactured and semimanufactured wood products.		Wood pulp.		Paper and cardboard.	
	Metric tons.	Value.	Metric tons.	Value.	Metric tons.	Value.	Metric tons.	Value.
1901	992,873	$9,538,736	6,951	$364,534	382,846	$6,073,068	50,017	$2,646,393
1902	1,078,947	10,258,826	12,371	470,045	447,470	6,629,462	51,965	2,526,883
1903	1,172,776	12,045,635	11,894	465,436	447,744	6,398,929	57,182	2,450,940
1904	988,417	9,460,239	14,271	564,783	445,260	6,509,881	63,312	2,816,841
1905	1,017,344	9,355,532	18,953	670,858	442,325	7,402,267	72,400	3,324,701
1906	1,115,325	12,019,907	22,725	770,714	505,627	8,571,390	97,143	4,382,658
1907	1,043,385	11,771,016	21,513	862,317	556,605	9,304,665	98,939	4,419,025
1908	822,869	9,312,732	18,872	801,106	594,615	10,069,484	112,385	4,732,960
1909	732,513	9,291,882	25,234	1,003,821	601,875	9,405,567	128,772	5,584,450
1910	689,327	9,777,524	22,835	947,032	635,800	10,578,844	143,299	6,016,600
1911	652,865	9,157,051	21,298	946,094	621,087	10,816,560	131,560	5,639,417
1912	602,664	8,641,955	20,236	977,450	693,591	13,150,144	156,046	6,798,142
1913	574,379	9,120,174	22,829	1,097,782	706,919	13,853,242	186,416	8,642,491
1914	520,019	8,521,784	19,822	1,008,457	638,346	13,252,010	188,217	8,080,441
1915	755,067	14,730,191	9,750	684,928	734,085	16,318,198	214,252	12,517,985
1916	761,058	.....	.....	.....	690,824	.....	.....	.....

[a] Figures for lumber and timber include small quantities of Swedish timber, hewn or sawed in Norway.

To show how the Norwegian exporters have been able to enhance the value of the lumber by manufacturing processes, the following figures are given, taken from official Norwegian statistics, representing the average value of lumber products exported f. o. b. Norwegian ports in 1913: Planed lumber (flooring, ceiling, etc.), $25.47; box shooks, $30.07; sawed lumber, $20.47; mill ends and slabs, $5.16 per 1,000 feet. Scandinavian wood, when sold as pit props, yields about $146; as cellulose, about $458; as paper, about $1,040 per 100 cubic yards.

In other countries there is the same movement to increase the export value of wood products. In Australia, besides assisting the lumber exporter in inspecting the lumber, the Government of Victoria has established planing mills to insure more nearly uniform manufacture and to enhance the export value of lumber products. Germany for years before the war imported vast quantities of logs and rough lumber, manufactured these products into highly finished articles, and exported them.

The trend of the lumber export business is toward the exportation of manufactured and semimanufactured wood products. By this means the value of American wood exports would be doubled, provided they were marketed efficiently. For the execution of a far-reaching plan a radical change is essential in the present methods of exporting lumber.

In many countries there are important industries that are large consumers of American lumber. Lumber can be manufactured and cut to the sizes desired by foreign factories instead of being shipped rough. The cost to the consumer would thereby be decreased and the usefulness of American lumber products increased. If such a plan were undertaken on a large scale with different mills specializing in various kinds of stock, no foreign manufacturer could compete. A possible obstacle would be the tariff on manufactured and semimanufactured goods in foreign countries. Such charges might, however, be offset by the saving in waste material and freight that would be effected by having the articles manufactured in this country.

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In a recent report from South Africa, a Norwegian consular officer states that Scandinavian lumber (pine and spruce) easily commands $2.42 extra in lengths of 18 to 25 feet. Considering the nature of Scandinavian lumber, which has a very small percentage of clears, it is readily seen that American charges for its nearest competitor, Douglas fir, in lengths of 16 to 32 feet (only $1 extra), are very small and constitute another proof that Americans have not taken advantage of their favorable position for the lumber export business.

An important market would be found for hickory ski stock, and this material can be almost finished in this country, without any danger of competition from other countries, because hickory suitable for ski stock is found only in the United States. Hickory is frequently shipped rough, a very primitive method of marketing this high-grade stock. The practice of shipping timber to be resawed in the foreign countries has long ago been abandoned by the European lumber trade, which is in a position to saw to almost any dimensions required more economically than would be possible for the importer.

The problem in this country has been for a long time that importers abroad do not take a sufficient percentage of log run, especially rejecting the lower grades. The reason is simply that American exporters have spoiled their customers by sweetening grades and by quoting too low prices.

The American veneer industry has a promising future in foreign trade. Special attention should be paid to manufacturing the cheaper kinds of veneer for box material, etc., which is certain to find a big market.

BETTER ORGANIZATION OF EXPORT TRADE.

PROPER DRYING OF LUMBER.

Proper drying of lumber is a very vital question. It is not necessary to point out the enhanced value of well-seasoned lumber. Some progressive lumbermen in the United States who show in practice that they realize the importance of seasoning unfortunately do not export their lumber to any great extent. For instance, the cypress manufacturers, who are considered among the leading lumber manufacturers in this country, are taking great pains to dry their lumber thoroughly and they receive better prices than other lumber manufacturers. The saving in freight by shipping dry lumber is very material, especially when freight rates are so high as they are to-day.

The desire on the part of the lumber exporters to obtain payment quickly is the chief reason for shipping unseasoned lumber, and with a better organization and inspection of the lumber export business these difficulties will largely be overcome.

Special care should be taken to prevent the blueing of lumber, which is considered a serious objection in most countries.

METHOD OF SAVING FREIGHT CHARGES.

At the present time a saving of freight on lumber cargoes is especially important. A most interesting plan in this connection is to exploit the market for the short clear lengths obtained from shop

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lumber in the western part of this country. If the clear portions of the lumber are thus cut out before the lumber is shipped, there is a saving of the freight that would be charged on the defective portions. A manufacturer of California white pine has adopted this plan to ship short clear lengths, thereby saving the freight on the defective lumber in each plank. The diagram on page 85 shows three planks (A, B, and C) of No. 1 shop common California white pine with their defects and the cuttings into clear stiles, muntins, and rails of various dimensions. Plank A contained 11 board feet; the minimum required for cuttings was 5.5 feet and the actual cuttings as figured amounted to 6.2 feet. From the 13 board feet in plank B the minimum required for cuttings was set at 6.5 feet and the actual cuttings as figured amounted to 7.91 feet. In plank C, containing 27 board feet, the requirement was 13.5 feet and the cuttings as figured totaled 14.75 feet. According to the rules of the manufacturer referred to, any number of stiles or rails can be figured to make up the minimum aggregate quantity represented by the cuttings, but only two muntins are to be considered.

The cuttings permitted in No. 1 shop common are as follows:

Products.	Width (inches).	Length.	Board feet.
Stiles	5½	6′ 8″, 6′ 10″, 7′	3
	5½	7′ 2″, 7′ 4″, 7′ 6″	3½
	6	6′ 8″, 6′ 10″, 7′, 7′ 2″	3½
	6	7′ 4″, 7′ 6″	3½
Muntins	5½	3′ 6″, 3′ 8″	1½
	5½	3′ 10″, 4′	1½
Rails	9	2′ 4″, 2′ 6″	1½
	9	2′ 8″, 2′ 10″	2
	9	3′	2½
	10	2′ 4″, 2′ 6″	2
	10	2′ 8″, 2′ 10″	2½
	10	3′	2½

BRANDING.

The importance of branding lumber has been realized for many years by the most experienced lumber exporters in the world, who have developed the system of branding on an extensive scale. In this country there are lumber exporters who have branded their products for years, but this practice is more the exception than the rule. A lumber brand should indicate (1) the name of the producer, (2) the species of wood, (3) the grade, (4) whether manufactured or rough stock.

For instance, a brand such as

S + D
[Red]

would carry the following information: S = Stone Lumber Co.; + = No. 2 clear; D = Douglas fir; and the red color would indicate that the lumber was shipped rough. A brand such as

S O D
[Blue]

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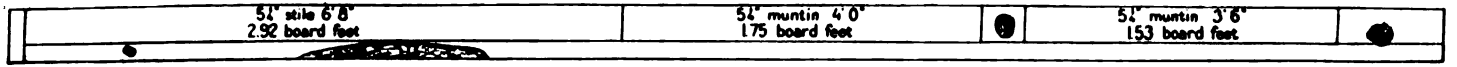
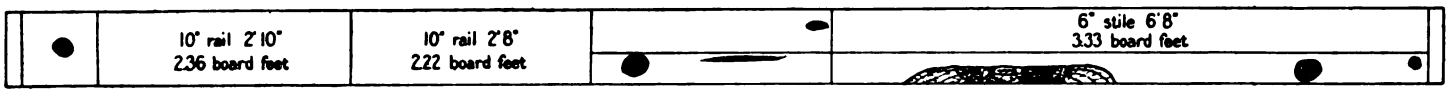
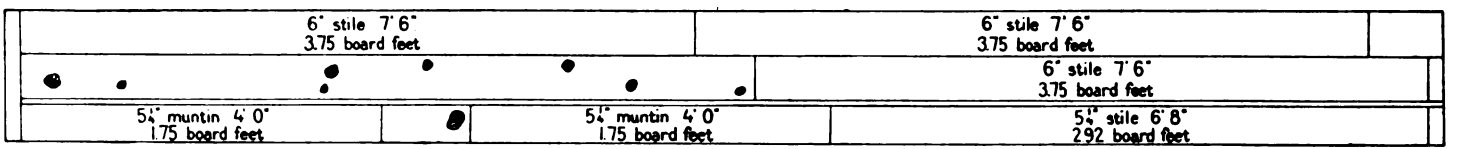


Plank A - 11 board feet. Required in cuttings, 5.5 feet. Cuttings as figured, 6.2 feet.



Plank B - 13 board feet. Required in cuttings, 6.5 feet. Cuttings as figured, 7.91 feet.



Plank C - 27 board feet. Required in cuttings, 13.5 feet. Cuttings as figured, 14.75 feet.

Fig. 29.—Method of cutting out defective lumber before shipment.

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would be interpreted as follows: S = Stone Lumber Co.; ○ = merchantable; D = Douglas fir; and the blue color would indicate planed lumber. The lumber may be branded at one or both ends. It would be advisable to adopt a uniform system of branding for all mills manufacturing the same species, so as to facilitate the proper interpretation of the brands.

With the lumber branded in this way the following advantages would be gained:

1. It would always show the name of the producer. If the lumber is good, it would give him credit; if it is below grade, it would cause the demand for such lumber to fall off. In other words, it would weed out the dishonest shippers and create a market for goods carefully kept up to standard.

2. It would prevent middlemen, importers, wholesalers, and retailers from tampering with the grades. To indicate merely the name of the producer and not the brand would not safeguard him against such practices. On the contrary, it might be detrimental to the shipper in case somebody tampered with the grades of lumber bearing his brand.

3. Indicating the species would prevent the substitution of one species for another, which has been done with many kinds of American lumber. No more complaints would be heard, for instance, of comparatively poor-quality southern pine being sold for high-quality dense structural material.

4. Showing whether the lumber was rough or planed would prevent consumers in foreign countries from blaming American shippers for having sent defective manufactured flooring where the lumber had been planed by the importer. The consumer would readily see that lumber marked in red, for instance, and defectively dressed, must have been planed in the importing country, and he would not criticize American planing mills.

5. A trade-mark on any article gives the consumer an impression of responsibility on the producer's part, and branded lumber, if known to be from a reputable mill, always commands a higher price. Therefore it may readily be understood why our competitors sell lumber on brands and not on prices. The demand for certain brands of lumber comes not only from the importer but from the wholesaler, retailer, and consumer.

In Scandinavia the brand is stenciled by hand on each piece of lumber, according to instructions from the inspector, immediately before shipment is made. Trade-marking for quality as well as the name of the mill can not be done satisfactorily at the mill before the lumber is thoroughly seasoned, because the lumber may deteriorate in quality before it is ready for shipment. It must always be borne in mind that the small cost of branding, said to be about 25 cents or less per 1,000 feet, will be amply repaid by the increased value that branded lumber assumes. Many importers would even be willing to pay an extra charge for having the lumber branded.

It is not sufficiently understood in this country that paying a couple of dollars more or less per 1,000 feet of lumber delivered in a foreign country does not mean much to the importer if the quality thereby can be guaranteed. The cost of freight, customhouse duties, and other incidental expenses often amounts to considerably more than the lumber itself, and as such charges generally are the same

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for the highest as for the lowest quality, a small difference in the price of material does not mean much to the importer.

In facilitating the settling of claims, it would be very advantageous to have lumber branded. Branding would prevent the importer from making unjust claims, and furthermore it would aid the inspectors in their work of separating the defective parcels in a shipment from the rest. This feature alone would justify taking the step of trade-marking all lumber. Of course, many firms never expect to ship a cargo without paying some indemnity, but this class of shippers could scarcely claim admittance to the directory suggested for publication by the various associations (see following paragraphs), and the trade-marking of lumber would thus not benefit them to any great extent.

The establishing of brands, however, has its disadvantages, especially in the hardwood lumber trade. Many smaller mills, with scattered holdings of timber greatly varying in quality, are often not in a position to fill subsequent orders for the same quality that was branded and shipped previously. It is a great temptation to such mills to buy lumber outside and brand it as their own, thereby subjecting themselves to the danger of breaking down the whole system and losing the reputation that they may have created by many years of persistent work.

DIRECTORY OF SAWMILLS.

The registration of lumber trade-marks is almost a necessity in the work of the various lumber associations in this country, to insure a uniform system, to prevent disputes over trade-marks, and to protect the exporters in case others tamper with trade-marks. An arrangement would also be advisable to enable foreign customers to distinguish between the brands. A directory of firms that trade-mark their lumber would therefore be most valuable, and there is much other information with regard to the lumber business that could with advantage be included in a handbook to be published by the lumber associations. Such a book might contain the following data:

1. An alphabetical list of all mills trade-marking their lumber. In addition, information could be imparted regarding the capacity of the mills, their timber holdings, brands, telegraphic code, etc.
2. An alphabetical list of all brands used and the mills using them.
3. A description of the principal ports through which lumber is exported (dues, draft, and other useful information for the importer).
4. A map of forest sections and their seaports.
5. Information regarding the associations interested in particular kinds of lumber for export.
6. An outline of the exportation of lumber, the uses to which different kinds of lumber could be put in foreign countries, and other information for the importer.
7. Steamship lines from the nearest seaports to foreign countries.
8. The names of agents employed by the different concerns.
9. An outline of the inspection service rendered by the association and the cost of such service.
10. Grading rules established for the different countries.

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11. In connection with the exporters, mention may be made of specialties manufactured by them or allied industries in which they are interested, such as cooperage factories, creosoting works, paper mills, etc.

12. References.

13. Suitable advertising.

This handbook should be revised from year to year. An association would be in a position to exclude disreputable shippers from the list and would thereby exercise a strong influence in raising the standards of the exporter.

A specimen entry for one firm in the suggested directory of sawmills is as follows:

ARMSTRONG LUMBER CO., ARMSTRONG, LA.

Sawmills: Armstrong, La. Capacity, ——— M feet per year.
Lumberville, La. Capacity, ——— M feet per year.
Timber holdings: Long-leaf yellow pine, ——— acres.
Short-leaf pine, ——— acres.
Cypress, ——— acres.
Location: See map Louisiana H 5 and F 3.
Specialties: Southern yellow pine—
Timbers.
Flooring.
Ship decking.
Car decking.
Cypress—
Timbers.
Tank stock.
Box factory with capacity of ——— per day.
Creosoting plant with capacity of ——— per day.
Shipping ports: New Orleans, La.; Gulfport, Miss.
Brokers: Johns & Smith, Liverpool, England.
J. T. Moore, Buenos Aires, Argentina.
Principal export markets: United Kingdom and Argentina.
Members Southern Pine Association, New Orleans, La.
Code: A. B. C., fifth edition.
References: The National Bank of Armstrong, Armstrong, La.
Pan American Bank, New Orleans, La.
London & Liverpool Bank, London and Liverpool, England.
Anglo-Argentine Bank, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Products.[a]	Brands.		
	Rough.	Dressed.	Blue.
Southern yellow pine: [b]			
Timbers			
Flooring			
Ship decking			
Car decking			
Cypress:			
Timbers			
Tank stock			

[a] In actual practice there would be a further subdivision of the products by grades, since the grades would have to be indicated in the brands.

[b] Including both the long-leaf and the short-leaf pine. According to the "density rule" adopted in 1915 by the American Society for Testing Materials, all southern-pine timbers, irrespective of botanical species (long-leaf, short-leaf, loblolly, Cuban, and pond pine), are classified as "dense" southern yellow pine and "sound" southern yellow pine. This rule was worked out through the cooperation of the Forest Service and has the approval of the Southern Pine Association.

INSPECTION.

It has previously been pointed out in this monograph how the west-coast lumber exporters in this country have solved the problem of

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inspection in an apparently satisfactory way. The other sections of this country, however, have not always been successful in this respect. It has also been mentioned that the American lumber exporter insists upon payment before the cargo reaches the importer, thus practically placing the importer at the mercy of the exporter in sections where no adequate inspection system is in effect.

The system in use on the Pacific coast is not, however, altogether satisfactory. In certifying that the cargo is up to grade, the inspector simply states that no inferior lumber is contained in each grade. If the exporter desires to "sweeten" the grades, the inspector does not prevent him from doing so. From the importer's standpoint this condition is very satisfactory. The American lumber exporter, however, uses this practice to cut prices and has often spoiled customers in the foreign field.

In future inspection services lumber that is above grade, as well as that which is below grade, should be thrown out, because the shipping of lumber above grade is not consistent with sound business policy and not fair to the mills that keep strictly to the grades specified.

Many suggestions have been made as to the kind of inspection service to be established. A proposal often heard among lumber exporters favors the establishment of an official or semiofficial inspection. Others believe that inspection should be made only by the lumber associations. One plan for lumber inspection may be outlined as follows:

Each lumber-exporting section of the country should have an inspection bureau under the supervision of the Federal Government, cooperating with various lumber export associations in such a way that the inspectors would be recommended by the association and selected and appointed by the Federal Government under civil-service rules subjecting the inspectors to a suitable test to ascertain their capability. The advantage of such an arrangement is apparent, in that it would tend to inspire confidence in the integrity of the inspectors' services, as the inspection would be effected by impartial Government officials whose judgment would be considered fair by both parties concerned, exporter and importer. The work of the inspectors could be checked as inspection is checked by the various associations in domestic trade.

Besides inspecting cargoes, these inspectors would also tally, giving a certificate to this effect. This method would eliminate many of the present complaints regarding shortage in quantity and make more exact the statements on bills of lading regarding the quantity of lumber placed on board. It would also check questionable practices, thereby possibly decreasing marine-insurance rates. It is not to the credit of American lumber exporters that foreign governments have officially warned the shipowners to be on their guard against dishonest lumber exporters. It is important that shippers should insert in the bills of lading the number of pieces under deck and those on deck, specifying clearly the number of boards, deals, timbers, etc., in each case, and not simply giving the total amount of which the cargo consists. It has led to dissatisfaction on the part of the importer to hear that if any deck cargo is thrown overboard, it is generally the extra-long timbers of the best quality, and very seldom boards or deals.

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The Australian Government has established an official inspection bureau by which cargoes of Australian lumber can be inspected by Government officials. The cost of such inspection is said to be about 30 cents per 1,000 feet, but it increases the value of lumber cargoes materially. The inspector stamps on each piece the brand indicating the kind of lumber, the grade, and the number of the inspector. If any crooked or inefficient work is done, the work may be easily checked up and the proper party made responsible. The Australian inspection is voluntary and is merely intended as an accommodation to the lumber exporters.

The following is an extract from Special Agent Roger E. Simmons's report on lumber markets in eastern South America, and indicates the effects of Government inspection of lumber exports in these markets:

Australia formerly had grading troubles similar to those that the United States is and has been experiencing in the South American lumber trade. The Government was quick to respond and appointed the Forestry Department of the Commonwealth to inspect all export shipments to South America. Inspection certificates were then given under the seal of the Government. After 10 years I could learn of not a single disagreement or protest of any cargoes of either ties, poles, or lumber coming to The Plate from Australia. Uruguay was particularly commendatory in its comment on Government lumber inspections by Australia.

Complaints have frequently been heard in connection with the shipment of Japanese lumber, and recent reports from that country indicate that the Japanese Government is contemplating a compulsory inspection, to be effected by the Association of Manufacturers under the supervision of the Japanese Government. The Government is giving bounties to this association for the maintenance of such inspection service.

In other countries similar plans are also under consideration. For other articles they have been in effect for many years and have proved to be of value to exporters of such goods.

There are some advocates of the plan of letting each mill inspect its own lumber. They contend that other countries—Scandinavia, for instance—have solved the problem in this way and have no absolute uniform grading rules, nor official or semiofficial inspection. This is partly true, but must be considered in connection with special circumstances in those countries. Their lumber, in nearly every case, is trade-marked and they have been in business for several hundred years. They are in close touch with the markets and can easily exercise personal control over the settling of claims. Finally, there are comparatively few mills engaged in the export business, and those exporting are nearly all large concerns that understand that keeping the standard of grades means their success in business. It may be that if the trade-marking of lumber in the way described in this monograph became general the inspection service would seem less important.

DEFINITE EXPORT GRADING RULES.

The export grading rules used in this country are not entirely satisfactory and can not satisfy every country equally well. It is an elementary necessity for the manufacturer to establish rules for grading export lumber that will suit both his customer and himself.

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A competent man should be assigned to work out these rules. It would be found, for instance, that in some countries less importance is attached to some defects, and more to others; that certain countries would be able to consume a large percentage of short lengths, and that long lengths shipped them at the present time from this country are frequently halved, thereby wasting the material and causing a decreased demand for American lumber because of the excessive price. Some countries would not consider blue lumber objectionable for certain purposes, and special grades should be established to cover such material, etc. In other words, grading rules should be established to meet the requirements in the principal lumber markets and not only to specify four or five grades from No. 1 clear down to No. 4 common lumber, but also to cover special stock, such as car material, shipbuilding material, tank and silo stock, different kinds of furniture stock, etc.

To establish these rules close cooperation between importer and consumer abroad and manufacturer and exporter in this country would be necessary. The work would take some time and the rules would be subject to many changes before they would be satisfactory to all concerned. After the rules were adopted the standards should be strictly maintained and adjustments made by raising or lowering prices. On account of the laxity of the grading rules it is now possible to manipulate grades to meet prices, but the manufacturer would then find it profitable to comply exactly with the importer's demands. If he desires clear lumber, ship clear lumber, but let him pay the price. It can never be satisfactory to the manufacturer to be entirely dependent upon the instructions given him by middlemen, who often do not understand the grading rules themselves and are liable to misinterpret orders given them by the importers, especially as the middlemen have not always been averse to establishing a reputation for themselves for shipping above grade at the manufacturers' expense. There is no good reason why the importer should be taught to expect a certain percentage of clear lumber in the merchantable grade. If importers give instructions that entail extra expense to the exporter, this fact should be explained to the importer when he places the order and charges made accordingly. The exporter can often explain how the specification may be changed in order to avoid such extra expenses.

ARBITRATION OF CLAIMS.

A very serious handicap to the profitable exportation of American lumber is the lack of adequate representation in the foreign field for the settling of claims in connection with lumber shipments. Some claims must arise, however careful the exporters may be in grading and inspection.

One hardwood export association in this country has a representative in Europe, whose sole occupation is to attend to the proper settlement of claims, and the favorable results of this representative's work have already been emphasized. Maintaining a permanent arbitrator in the foreign field in connection with disputes regarding lumber shipments is thus not merely an experiment but a practice that has proved invaluable to these lumber exporters. It would therefore seem advisable for other lumber associations to take similar steps. The mere

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presence of such an arbitrator would prevent many dishonest importers from making unjust claims. If recognized by importers and exporters, the arbitrator would be in a position to settle all bona fide claims promptly, to the satisfaction of both parties concerned. There would be no postponing of settlements until the next order was filled, etc., and the quick settlement of claims would bring the exporters future orders. As matters are now, many orders are lost either on account of unwillingness on the part of American exporters to settle claims or through their inability to ascertain the justice of the claims.

Arbitration service should not be valued according to the amount actually saved by avoiding unjust claims. Other things should be taken into consideration, principally maintaining the good will of the customers. Maintaining an arbitration service would not fail to establish a reputation for integrity for the exporters, which, deservedly or not, they often lack at present. It would not be necessary to have an arbitrator for each section of the country and for each species of lumber exported. The determination of damaged lumber does not always require such detailed knowledge of each species as an expert grader must have. It is believed that one arbitrator could handle, for instance, southern yellow pine, Douglas fir, and other similar softwoods used for the same purposes. The same principle would also apply to a certain extent to different groups of hardwoods. An arbitrator would be able to check up the work done by the inspectors in this country and could report any inefficient inspection and grading. Probably in a few years his services would be considered unnecessary, after the proper reputation had been established for American exporters and they had become more familiar with foreign requirements and business methods.

DEPOSITS OF LUMBER IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

It is not necessary to refer exclusively to our competitors to prove that handling the export business direct with personal representatives in foreign countries is the most efficient method of selling lumber. Large concerns in this country have developed such a trade years ago. It is necessary, however, to refer to our competitors, the Scandinavians, for the idea of establishing deposits in foreign countries for the distribution of lumber. This is a method that would undoubtedly prove well suited to conditions in this country.

Lumber deposits, to facilitate the prompt filling of orders from foreign customers, could be established in some of the following ports: Liverpool, London, Antwerp, Copenhagen, Rotterdam, Hamburg, Nantes or Havre, Bordeaux, Bilbao, Lisbon, Cadiz, Barcelona, Marseille, Genoa, Naples, Trieste, Saloniki, Alexandria, Tangiers, Cape Town, Delagoa Bay, and various other ports in Asia, Australia, the Orient, and South America. Some of these cities are free ports with excellent facilities for handling lumber cargoes. From them transshipments can easily be made to other countries without passing through the formalities of the customhouse. Many of them, furthermore, have direct steamship communication with the neighboring countries and can therefore handle rush orders, which always command high prices.

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It is believed that these deposits could take care of any shipments in dispute, for which exporters would not make any allowance, and that they would thereby place a powerful weapon in the hands of the exporters with which to fight the professional complainers, or "chicanneurs." From these deposits the lumber could be placed on the market whenever a favorable opportunity presented itself. This opportunity to take immediate advantage of a favorable market would check the consignment practice, which is a real detriment to the export trade. The exporter would be in a position to take advantage also of low freight rates, for instance, to complete a cargo, to fill deck space on regular liners, etc. The importers would be able to inspect the lumber before receiving it, thereby eliminating complaints.

In connection with these deposits, plans have been formulated to establish woodworking plants for the further manufacture of specialties intended for certain markets in the different countries. For example, veneers could be shipped from this country and cut to the desired sizes in the woodworking establishments or further manufactured in the various free ports. Orders could be taken and filled promptly without waiting for the necessary tonnage to bring them over from the United States. As the business grew the American concerns would probably find opportunities to establish themselves as importers in new markets. Much American lumber is transshipped from the free ports to-day. This business, however, is not in American hands and does not do justice to the American exporters, because the grades and species are frequently tampered with and the prices are exorbitant. It is an advantage in connection with the deposit plan in the free ports that labor would be cheap and other expenses small, in comparison with what has to be paid in this country. The demand for American wood products would naturally be increased through the ability to offer better service.

CONSIGNMENTS OF LUMBER.

The practice of consigning lumber would be materially checked when the American lumber exporters obtained sufficient knowledge as to the conditions in foreign countries, and they would find that they could do better by systematically working up permanent markets than by dumping their products one week here and another week there. At any rate, the six-month limit within which consignment lumber is to be disposed of is unsatisfactory. Four months should be considered the limit for the disposal of consignments. Moreover, if the consignment practice is to be continued, it would be advisable for the American shippers to exercise more control over their consignments and to obtain from the lumber associations accurate information regarding foreign market conditions.

ADVERTISING.

Several species of American wood are well-known abroad but others are entirely unknown and much American lumber is put to uses for which it is not suited. Cypress lumber is perhaps the best advertised abroad, yet an American consular officer in England

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states that according to a leading lumberman in that country cypress is not a popular wood and the lumbermen in his district can conceive of no use for which it could be popularized except for coffin stock. This comment is typical of foreign ignorance of American woods and emphasizes the need of advertising abroad. Under the circumstances the distribution of the lumber can not satisfactorily be left entirely to brokers or agents. Recently an important contract was let for paving one of the largest European cities—a contract involving probably millions of dollars—but very little was done by American wood-block paving interests to advocate the use of their material. The praiseworthy efforts made by one lumber association in this country did not receive the support that could have been expected from concerns interested in contracts of this kind, and it was given to a foreign asphalt company.

A general advertising campaign should be undertaken explaining the most efficient ways of using American lumber. Such work could best be taken up by the associations, because it would entail a considerable financial outlay and would benefit the whole industry. If the lumber were branded, however, each mill would to that extent be advertising its own product and would facilitate the publicity campaign of the associations.

If the lumber is handled through agents or brokers, they should be required to communicate with the architect, engineer, importer, etc., and explain, in cases where American lumber is superior, why the species of American lumber that they represent would be preferable to European lumber. They should also submit samples and other information when quoting. If the broker should decline to do this, it is time for the American lumber exporter to sever his connection and either take the matter up with another representative or handle the business direct. It can not be satisfactory in the long run for the lumber exporter to have his broker simply sell American lumber as common utility wood, when there are species adapted to special uses and of splendid quality, with which the goods from other countries can not compete. These conditions have not been properly understood by the exporters in this country but are readily recognized upon consideration of the low export prices and the limited foreign market of American lumber.

Some prejudice exists in many countries against American lumber, and it would be very desirable to convince the foreign customers that their suspicions are unfounded. Many examples are given of exporters submitting specifications reading unbled timber (timber from which turpentine has not been drawn), etc. Some people believe that soda-dipped lumber is weaker than undipped lumber and even think that dipped yellow pine is a species of poplar, on account of the color that it acquires. Many similar misunderstandings prevail, and it would be advisable to publish information in foreign languages and distribute it abroad, and to refer to Government publications that throw light on this question. Official statements are given a great deal of consideration abroad. It would also be advisable to obtain a fair schedule of the comparative strength of different species of lumber and other data to determine comparative quality. The Douglas-fir interests, for instance, base their adver-

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tising for the use of Douglas-fir ties on successful tests made by British railroads.

Advertising campaigns would bring as good results in the foreign field as they now do in the domestic field. Such campaigns in the home field have been conducted successfully by the manufacturers of cypress, southern yellow pine, Arkansas soft pine, gum, and other woods, and if extended abroad would result in increased orders and a closer utilization of wood products.

An advertising campaign has been successfully carried on for some years by the Redwood Association in California, which has increased its foreign markets considerably by maintaining exhibits in various countries and having representatives to explain the uses and investigate the market for redwood.

Such a campaign must be worked out in detail, but only a broad outline can be suggested here. There are over 300 species of wood in this country, and special markets could be worked up for many species. Instead of advertising this or that wood as the "best wood in the world for all purposes, from construction lumber to panel work," it would be a better plan to advertise each species for certain purposes. An example may be given in the marketing of spruce and pine by the Scandinavian countries. Spruce has distinct qualities that pine lacks and vice versa. Spruce is also somewhat weaker. Nevertheless, through making the excellent qualities of spruce known to their customers abroad, the Scandinavian lumber exporters have raised its price from half that of pine some years ago to about 10 per cent lower than pine during the last few years. Spruce and pine are never mixed and bear distinguishing marks.

Many questions must be investigated in connection with an advertising campaign. It is not generally known that American lumber has decided advantages in some markets over lumber from other countries. For instance, lumber grown in extremely cold climates is liable to check and open up when brought down to the Tropics or other warm countries, while various species of American lumber, grown under climatic conditions similar to those that prevail in the consuming countries, will not manifest these defects. Some American species also resist white ants and other insects better than the wood from other countries. Advantage has not been taken of these facts, nor have they been sufficiently advertised by the exporter nor by his representative. It could also be impressed upon the foreign mind that this country can deliver lumber in larger sizes than any other country, and prices for such lumber should be made much higher than they are now.

In connection with the advertising of American lumber, it may be advisable to ship trial cargoes. Serious consideration should be given to this question.

In advertising lumber for various uses, mention should be made of the experiments conducted by the United States Government. For instance, it would prove to be of great value to importers to be notified of the results of the test made by the Forest Service Laboratory in Madison, Wis., a short while ago, to the effect that "a much stronger box than the type ordinarily used can be made with less material by increasing the number of nails and by properly proportioning the thickness of the sides and ends."

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CONFUSION IN NAMES OF WOODS.

There is much confusion in the designations of various kinds of lumber. Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga taxifolia*) is called Oregon pine, British Columbia pine, Douglas spruce, yellow fir, red fir, western fir, Washington fir, Puget Sound fir or pine, and west-coast or northwest. It is frequently reported from foreign countries that while Oregon pine was not found suitable for certain purposes, Douglas fir or British Columbia pine was very satisfactory. Hemlock also is called by many names. In each important publication and in each contract the botanical names should be inserted, when necessary for the sake of clearness.

JOINT OFFERS IN THE SHOOK TRADE.

Attention has been called previously to the shook trade in various parts of the world, which it is difficult for the individual American exporter to reach. Few mills specialize in cutting stock for box shooks. They are made up from slabs, mill ends, and other waste, and in order to make any profit it is necessary to deliver large quantities.

Previous to the war, a market valued at about $5,000,000 annually existed in southern and southwestern Europe for certain kinds of box shooks for use in shipping fruit, and this market was supplied mainly by European lumber exporters. Millions of these boxes filled with fruit are shipped back to this country. Upon exportation the respective governments of the European countries often refund the exporters' part of the amount of the duty paid on the lumber imported for making such boxes, and in this country containers made of American box shooks are admitted free of duty. It would be necessary for several mills to cooperate in obtaining orders for box shooks, for in order to yield any profit the business must be undertaken on a large scale. Waste from the different mills should be used, and a joint offer submitted to the different fruit-growers' associations in the European countries. This field also offers an excellent opportunity for the manufacturers of box veneers.

In some countries people still use oak barrels made of material of European origin for packing grapes. The use of oak is simply the result of custom and is neither practical nor economical, because of late oak has advanced greatly in price and could easily be replaced by American pine or spruce if these woods were properly advertised.

High-grade box material shipped out of this country could be branded as samples of such and such American lumber.

CARE IN TRANSSHIPMENT.

If lumber must be transshipped, care should be taken to have satisfactory supervision of the lumber while it is on the docks awaiting transshipment, in order to prevent it from being carelessly and unnecessarily exposed to the elements.

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SHIPPING.

It has recently become feasible for the larger lumber mills to own their own tonnage. This was the custom years ago and brought the mill owner in closer touch with the importer in foreign countries. To own his own tonnage would make the mill owner independent of foreign shipowners, would make definite the delivery of cargoes, and would thereby increase the demand for American lumber abroad. The cargoes would not be too large for one mill to handle and no middlemen would be needed.

It is said that the Scandinavian countries contemplate shipping lumber to the West Indies immediately after the war, when direct steamship communication will be established between those countries and the islands. For many years they have had a practical monopoly of the shook trade of the Canary Islands, owing solely to their excellent steamship service. The lumber exporters in this country would find it profitable to take a similar interest in establishing regular service with foreign countries.

The following figures represent the total tonnage of the merchant vessels (steamers of 100 tons gross and over and sailing vessels of 50 tons net and over) under the flags of the principal lumber-exporting countries, as given in the report of the Bureau Véritas for 1915-16: United Kingdom, 21,015,958; United States, 3,835,898; Norway, 2,474,041; Japan, 1,964,598; Russia, 1,639,798; Sweden, 1,151,045; Austria, 943,420.

The following figures show the percentage of the total foreign trade of the United States that was carried in American vessels in specified fiscal years from 1830 to 1916:

	Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.
1830	89.9	1880	17.4	1912	9.4
1840	82.9	1890	12.9	1913	10.1
1850	72.5	1900	9.3	1914	9.7
1860	66.5	1910	8.7	1915	14.3
1870	35.6	1911	8.7	1916	16.3

FOREIGN COMPETITION IN THE LUMBER TRADE.

It has previously been pointed out that in almost every market American lumber meets competition from other countries. The keenest competition is found in Europe, where millions of feet of lumber are produced annually and where the exportation of lumber has been carried on for hundreds of years.

The strong competition that the United States faces in foreign markets from variously equipped countries—some like Russia with immense reserves of timber and undeveloped transportation facilities, and others like Norway with disappearing resources and highly developed manufacturing and shipping facilities—with their newly acquired alertness to the situation, points clearly to the necessity for a thorough organization of the American export lumber trade. The success of the American lumber export trade in the future will depend upon cooperative action rather than individual efforts and

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upon careful study of all the factors affecting the lumber trade in foreign markets.

Many lumbermen in this country seem to be of the opinion that the spreading of knowledge of foreign markets would tend to hurt them in their business. "Why should I give my competitors in this country a knowledge of foreign markets that it has cost me thousands of dollars and many years to obtain?" ask lumbermen who have been successful in exporting lumber. They seem never to have reflected that the lack of knowledge of conditions in foreign countries is the cause of much unfair competition, such as dumping and consignments, and that only by giving American lumber exporters the facts as to the markets and the possibility of marketing lumber will such undesirable practices be checked. The export field is large enough for every exporter and the better acquainted all become with it, the earlier will better facilities prevail.

In nearly all the European countries where the soil is not adapted to agricultural purposes, the Governments have taken steps to reforest the cut lands and to restrict the cutting of timbers to dimensions above a specified size. In Sweden, which has been cutting for centuries, the forest area is still about 48 per cent of the total land area. The keenest competition in the softwood trade probably comes from the Scandinavian countries and from Russia and Finland and in the hardwood trade from Asia.

SCANDINAVIA AND FINLAND.

The forest products of northern Europe are in many respects inferior to American lumber. Scotch pine (*Pinus sylvestris*, known in trade also as Scotch fir and Baltic pine) is not so strong and durable as the best species of American softwoods and can seldom be obtained in long, clear lengths. The wood is generally knotty and is therefore unsuitable for finish, furniture, etc., where stress is laid on clear grades. It is alleged, for instance, that a Swedish door No. 1 corresponds to a Douglas-fir door No. 3, on account of the defective material of the Swedish product. However, the Swedish doors are generally better made and are obtainable in a great variety of patterns.

Baltic products are generally better sawed, planed, or otherwise manufactured than American products. There is no great trouble from blueing. The material is carefully inspected and graded before shipment and is nearly always branded. It is generally seasoned at least six months before it is ready for shipment. There are comparatively few lumber mills engaged in the export trade, but these mills are mostly important concerns, which cooperate in establishing prices and otherwise protect their mutual interests. Orders are received in the early fall and the cutting and sawing is done through the winter and spring. Thus the amount cut is always regulated and also the export prices, through cooperation among the producers. The Baltic forest products are sold almost exclusively on brands and quality and not on price.

The superior methods of manufacturing the lumber, seasoning, branding, etc., have in many instances made up for the defects of the wood itself, and through concerted action and adequate representation

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abroad the Baltic shippers have been able to establish profitable markets even in distant countries, such as South Africa, South America, and Australia. The activities of their export associations and forest associations are of the greatest importance in furthering foreign trade. It is also worth mentioning that great care is taken to eliminate waste in cutting and manufacturing, and in some sections, with favorable shipping conditions to the important manufacturing centers abroad, pieces of lumber as small as 6 inches are exported, to be used by the various manufacturing establishments or to be sold as firewood. This trade is very important under normal conditions.

Scotch pine generally yields the following percentages of the different grades: No. 1, 3 to 4 per cent; No. 2, 15 to 20 per cent; No. 3, 45 to 55 per cent; No. 4 and below, 20 to 37 per cent. The quality of timber, however, varies a great deal in the different parts of the country. Some importers frequently buy the lumber unsorted (u/s), placing the utmost confidence in the integrity of the exporter. The lumber is branded as unsorted.

The following prices per 1,000 feet were quoted in April, 1914, f. o. b. Sundsvall, Sweden, for unsorted Scotch pine: 3 by 9 inches, $28.02; 2½ by 7 inches, $22.66. According to the official Swedish export statistics, the average price obtained by Swedish exporters in 1913 for sawed Scotch-pine lumber delivered in Swedish port was $20.97 per 1,000 feet. The average price of sawed long-leaf yellow-pine lumber for export, according to American official export statistics, was $21.70 per 1,000 feet at the same time, and that of Douglas fir, $12.80 per 1,000 feet. These prices are averages for all grades and dimensions. Export lumber from this country is generally of a higher grade than Swedish lumber because American lower grades can not be marketed at a profit in distant markets in competition with Swedish lumber, which has a shorter haul to the principal wood-importing countries in Europe.

The short distance to the principal markets, seldom more than 1,500 miles, is a great asset. Freights immediately previous to the war were about $3.70 per 1,000 feet from Sundsvall, situated in the Gulf of Bothnia, to Nantes, France, as compared with $10.20 from American Gulf ports to Nantes. While the Gulf of Bothnia and the Gulf of Finland are frozen during the winter months, thus preventing lumber shipments from northern Sweden, Russia, and Finland, Swedish lumber can be exported, though at greatly increased cost, through the ice-free ports in Norway or on the west coast of Sweden, after being sent overland by rail.

The Scandinavian countries also have decided advantages in markets with which they have regular steamship lines, sometimes subsidized by their Governments to stimulate the export trade. Low freight rates are often offered to complete cargoes, and during normal conditions it is said that as low as $7.50 per 1,000 feet is quoted for lumber from Scandinavian ports to the Canary Islands. It is natural that these countries should have practically monopolized the shook market in the islands for some time.

The following table shows the average annual export prices f. o. b. Swedish port for third-quality sawed Scotch pine (2½ by 7 inches)

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from 1873 to 1912, and for all grades of sawed Scotch pine and for planed Scotch-pine lumber from 1887 to 1911:

Years.	Sawed Scotch pine.		Planed lumber (Scotch pine).
	All grades.	Third quality (2½ by 7 inches).	
	1,000 feet.	*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*
1873		$16.10	
1874		22.80	
1875		16.10	
1876		14.50	
1877		15.50	
1878		11.80	
1879		9.30	
1880		13.70	
1881		13.40	
1882		14.90	
1883		15.90	
1884		12.60	
1885		12.60	
1886		12.50	
1887	$12.40	11.90	$13.80
1888	13.70	13.00	15.30
1889	14.50	15.80	16.60
1890	13.00	13.40	16.10
1891	12.90	12.70	14.10
1892	13.70	13.60	14.60
1893	13.80	13.30	14.60
1894	14.50	14.60	15.30
1895	13.70	14.20	15.30
1896	14.00	14.60	15.80
1897	15.50	17.40	17.00
1898	16.20	17.90	17.70
1899	14.70	18.50	16.40
1900	16.20	19.90	18.50
1901	16.10	19.80	18.10
1902	16.10	17.70	18.10
1903	17.70	19.80	19.90
1904	16.10	19.90	18.10
1905	15.80	18.50	18.10
1906	18.30	20.20	19.90
1907	19.30	20.70	20.70
1908	17.20	18.70	18.80
1909	18.70	19.90	21.40
1910	20.40	21.70	22.50
1911	19.30	21.30	22.00
1912		20.50	

The following table shows the monthly average export prices f. o. b. Swedish port of third-quality Scotch pine, 3 by 9 inches, in 1912 and 1913:

Months.	1912	1913	Months.	1912	1913
	1,000 feet.	*1,000 feet.*		*1,000 feet.*	*1,000 feet.*
January	$25.25	$27.26	July	$25.25	$28.26
February	25.25	27.26	August	25.25	28.26
March	25.25	27.26	September	26.26	28.79
April	25.25	27.26	October	26.26	28.79
May	25.25	27.78	November	26.77	28.79
June	25.25	27.78	December	27.26	28.79

The following table shows the average export prices for various forms of Scotch pine f. o. b. Swedish port in 1913:

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Kinds of timber and lumber.

	Price per 1,000 feet.
Hewn timbers:	
Less than 5 inches in diameter	$11.89
5 to 8 inches in diameter	13.77
8 inches or more in diameter	20.67
Railroad ties	13.77
Sawed lumber:	
Battens, minimum thickness 2 inches, 6 to 8 inches wide	19.49
Boards, less than 2 inches thick—	
Less than 6 inches wide	16.23
Minimum width 3 inches	26.08
Box shooks	24.60
Deals, minimum thickness 2 inches, minimum width 8 inches	23.48
Mill ends less than 7 inches long	4.60
Scantlings, minimum thickness 2 inches, less than 6 inches wide	17.12

It is not only in European countries that American lumber exporters feel the Scandinavian competition. Baltic lumber is sold even on the west coast of South America and has a very profitable market in Australia in spite of the fact that the distance to Australia from the Scandinavian countries is almost twice as great as from the west coast of the United States. Scandinavian marketing methods and manufacturing and shipping facilities have had decided advantages over those of American shippers because of the fact that the former do not operate with a surplus stock under normal conditions and do not dispose of their products unless they obtain a profit.

The usual credit terms offered by Scandinavian shippers are four months or even longer. They partly account for the large market obtained for Scandinavian lumber abroad.

The advantages of the Scandinavian and Finnish exporters of lumber are as follows: Superior shipping facilities through native-owned tonnage, efficient marketing systems, cooperation among exporters, close connections between exporters and importers, proximity to the principal markets, elimination of many middlemen, and established reputation.

RUSSIA.

On account of their enormous timber resources Russia and Siberia will later prove to be the keenest competitors of the American lumber industry. The forest wealth of northern Russia comprises about 243,000,000 acres of untouched forest lands. Before the Russian revolution plans had been adopted for the development of this region after the war to produce 2,000,000,000 feet of lumber annually. Similar plans were under consideration for Siberia. The Russian Imperial Government had also sent a trade commissioner to study and report on the foreign markets for Russian forest products. This commissioner reported exhaustively on the Italian, German, and other European markets and advocated strongly the reorganization of the Russian export trade.

Russia possesses vast hardwood forests, mainly oak, poplar, elm, and ash, but they have not been exploited to their full extent. Up to the outbreak of the war many complaints were heard that Russian exporters were unable to make shipments at specified times, and other similar criticisms were made, which to a large extent gave the Russians a bad reputation abroad. These difficulties were due prin-

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cipally to lack of transportation facilities and will diminish as means of communication develop.

NORTHEASTERN ASIA.

Keen competition may be encountered in the future from northeastern Asia. Both softwoods and hardwoods are found in this territory. The oak that is common in this region, and is variously known as Siberian, Manchurian, or Japanese oak, has already found its way into nearly all the markets in the world, even in the United States. However, lack of transportation and port facilities have hampered the exploitation of the Asiatic forests. The timber stands are not so dense as in this country, but the labor is so much cheaper in Asia that even remote regions can be developed. The business is carried on by Japanese interests, and vast quantities of lumber, especially Manchurian oak, have been exported during the last decade. The Manchurian oak, however, is not so well suited for all purposes as is the American white oak and is more of a scrubby nature. It sells at a much lower price than American oak and is largely sold on consignment in the various markets of the world.

With the development of the Japanese merchant marine and direct steamship lines to other countries, partly supported by the Japanese Government, lumber exportation has received a great impetus. It is said that freight rates as low as $15 per 1,000 feet have been offered to Japanese lumber exporters from Asiatic ports to San Francisco and that in other cases lumber is carried in ballast. This competition has been temporarily checked, owing to the rise in Pacific freight rates. It is reported, however, that Japanese lumber exporters have planned to establish lumber deposits in various ports of the principal importing countries to carry on their export trade on a larger and better-organized scale after the war. Germany, England, the United States, the Orient, and Australia have been their principal markets. South America is reported to be a favorable field for exploitation in the future.

The Japanese lumber exporters have been very negligent about filling orders according to specifications, and complaints of deficient grades have been heard in all markets. It is reported that the Japanese Government will take steps to enforce inspection of articles destined for export, in order to retain the trade now held in the world's markets. There is also a growing tendency among Japanese lumber exporters to emancipate themselves from foreign brokers. They are planning to conduct their business through national channels. The exploitation of Asiatic softwoods to its full extent may not be effected in the near future, but it is a possibility with which American lumber exporters must reckon, because the forest resources of Asia are even more extensive than those of the United States.

CANADA.

In this hemisphere the United States faces Canadian competition. Canada possesses about one-fourth as much of some of the same species of merchantable timber as are found in this country, but it

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has not the great variety of species found in the United States. Many of the most valuable American woods, such as long-leaf yellow pine, cypress, and California redwood, are not found in Canada. The principal Canadian species are hemlock and spruce, both growing in the east and west, white pine in the east, and Douglas fir, larch, and cedar in the western Provinces. There are also different kinds of hardwoods, such as birch, maple, ash, and a few others. Oak and hickory are not found in any considerable quantity in Canada. The Canadian forests in the east are to some extent depleted, and it is principally from the western Provinces that further supplies of lumber for export will be taken. Heavy stands of timber are found in British Columbia. It must be borne in mind, however, that Canada is a new country, which will need vast amounts of lumber for its own development in the future. It is therefore believed that in the next decade less importance will attach to the lumber export trade in that country (except exports to the United States) than in this country. Canadian spruce, which for a long time has figured prominently in the export trade, is now being used mainly in the domestic market in the manufacture of pulp and paper.

The mills on the Pacific coast of Canada are to some extent owned or controlled by Americans, and the export trade on the Pacific coast of Canada is closely affiliated with the export interests on the Pacific coast of the United States.

The Canadian Government also has sent a trade commissioner to study foreign lumber markets. The results of the work of the commissioner have been emphasized not only by Canada itself but also by its strongest competitors, the Scandinavians. A Norwegian consular officer in South Africa, commenting on the trade figures for 1915, notes that the value of total imports into South Africa of planed and sawed lumber showed a decline of 60 per cent from 1913, but that Canada's share of the total increased from 5 per cent in 1913 to 13 per cent in 1915. This increase in Canada's share of the trade was partly due to the decline in imports from Scandinavia, but the consul attributes it largely to the energetic efforts that Canada has made during the war with a view to securing a market.

The United Kingdom and colonies will always be among the most important consumers of Canadian lumber. Ever since the outbreak of the war the sentiment throughout the British Empire has favored drawing supplies from national sources and keeping trade within the British Empire to the greatest possible extent. The Canadian export business can always depend upon the strong support of British banking institutions. Canadian lumber manufacturers and exporters do not endeavor to market their lumber direct to any great extent. Most of their business is done through English brokers and through American export agencies, particularly on the west coast.

Canada takes large quantities of lumber from the United States, but also exports considerably to this country. It may be expected that when the lumber export trade in this country has been placed on a solid basis, exporters both in this country and in Canada will understand that there is a market for the products of both countries and will realize that cutthroat competition in the foreign field will not benefit either.

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AUSTRALIA, SOUTH AMERICA, AND OTHER COUNTRIES.

In the Orient American hardwoods and softwoods meet competition with hardwood shipped from Australia and the Philippines. The Australian shipments are of great interest because they often are governmentally inspected, a system that has given excellent results. The stands, however, are scattered and their exploitation is expensive. Comparatively small quantities are exported and they are not likely to be materially increased in the future. The Philippines have vast resources of tropical hardwoods, exploited only to a small extent.

In South America extensive hardwood forests are found, but owing to the lack of communication these forests are not easily accessible. Some South American species, however, will eventually come into competition with the principal hardwoods of the United States. The uses to which South American varieties can be put are mainly for furniture and finishing purposes. Dyewoods are found, especially in Brazil. Oak does not occur in any considerable quantity. Of the softwoods, the Parana pine of Brazil is probably the most important. Since the outbreak of the war the freights on lumber cargoes from this country and from other lumber-producing countries have increased enormously and have almost made the importation into South America of foreign softwoods impossible. In the River Plate region considerable quantities of Parana pine have lately come on the market. This wood would be a good substitute for foreign softwoods were it not for the fact that it is very liable to warp and split. It is believed that softwoods from North America will again take their place on South American markets when normal freight rates are established. But should any methods of seasoning Parana pine be introduced whereby the difficulties of warping and checking could be eliminated, there is no doubt that the importation of North American softwoods would be greatly reduced.

Mexico and Central America have extensive forest resources. In the Balkan States, Austria-Hungary, and other countries considerable stands are found of both hardwoods and softwoods, but it remains to be seen how much of these forests will be left after the war. African hardwoods have for a long time been exported in large quantities and are used mainly for furniture and finishing purposes. Teakwood from southeastern Asia is in a class by itself and has no competitor. The cutting of teak is under strict governmental control.

WEBB BILL.[a]

The time has come when the importance of the export trade makes it worth while for lumbermen to take immediate steps to unite their common interests in promoting it. Whether this can legally be done under the present laws is a question that has been much debated. In some regions, export selling organizations have been formed and are in active operation, while in others so much doubt exists that no incorporators have come forward. The Webb bill (designed to remove all legal confusion) which has recently, in identical form, been introduced in both House and Senate, has been referred to their respective appropriate committees, and at this date has not been

[a] Since this section was written, the Webb bill has become law. It is printed in full in Appendix B, p. 113.

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reported. It authorizes the organization of associations to engage solely in export trade, provided among other things that such associations shall not act in restraint of trade within the United States and shall not restrain the export trade of any domestic competitor. It is also enacted that the words "export trade" shall not be deemed to include the production, manufacture, or selling for consumption or for resale within the United States or any Territory thereof of merchandise handled, or any act in the course of such production or manufacture. All the provisions of the law are made subject to enforcement by the Federal Trade Commission and the Attorney General.

The effect of this bill, if it becomes a law, will be to place definite restrictions on the activity of these associations, which probably already exist under the general provisions of the Sherman Act, and to make certain courses of action on the part of such associations advisable. The domestic market is protected and the domestic competitor (presumably the smaller mill or export merchant is intended) is expressly provided for. This means that such associations will not come under the protection of the law if engaged in producing, manufacturing, or selling, or to the extent to which they are so engaged, within the United States and its Territories. In other words a legal "combine" capable of being developed to its logical limit must be strictly a buying and selling agency of some sort, so far as American woods are concerned, and one that sells solely for foreign consumption. Otherwise, it would obviously not enjoy any special exemption from the prosecution for restraint of trade to which all domestic businesses are now liable. Furthermore, from the purely economic point of view, such selling agencies must make some provision for exporting the product of independent manufacturers who for one reason or another do not become members of the organization. This can be done either by handling their output on a commission basis in competition with the export commission agent or by buying it outright in competition with the export merchant and the foreign buying agency.

The opportunities open to a strong association comprising most of the mills favorably situated for export are almost without limit, considering the many deficiencies of the present system. Such associations will be powerful enough to standardize terms of sale, bills of lading, and export grades, and to stabilize the prices and shipments of exported supplies. They will be in a position to check the wasteful and demoralizing dumping on the export market and to put an end to such practices as the return to the domestic market of lumber ostensibly bought for export. Such associations could do much to obtain lower freights and better shipping facilities, and through foreign representation and the gradual extension of their influence, to insure the better utilization of their product, increasing its total value and conserving the forests. They would be in a position to perform in the export world many of the valuable trade-promotion services now being carried on by domestic lumber-trade associations, such as the compilation and distribution of statistics and other information, exhibitions of American lumber in foreign countries, and the settlement of trade disputes between buyers and sellers. For instance, they could arrange with foreign governments buying lumber in this country to accept lumber on this side, instead of inspecting it after

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arrival and throwing out pieces on which freight has been paid. This is one of the many wasteful proceedings now eloquent of the lack of cooperation among American lumbermen and one that would not be tolerated in any other exporting country.

FOREIGN COMBINATIONS FOR LUMBER EXPORT TRADE.

The trend of the export lumber trade in Sweden and Finland during the last few years has been toward the amalgamation of a number of smaller industries into larger ones. Especially in Finland there are comparatively few export mills, but each mill has a large output and sufficient capital to handle the business satisfactorily.

Among the many foreign combinations of sawmill operators the Finnish Sawmill Selling Union is probably the most important. This is a selling company organized by several of the largest Finnish lumber exporters, controlling at present 90 per cent of the total amount of lumber exported from that country. This selling company disposes of the output, destined for export, of its members and sells the products of the mills under their respective brands, charging the members with the expenses in proportion to the amount shipped by each mill. It is important to notice that due respect is paid to the trade-mark of each mill, as a market abroad had already been established for each brand before the formation of the union. The operation of this selling organization is said to have been very successful.

In Sweden the Swedish Wood Exporters' Association has done excellent work in the interest of the export lumber trade, and similar organizations are also found in Norway, Austria, and other countries.

LUMBER TRADE OF THE FUTURE.

While it is always dangerous to make specific prophecies, certain general lines along which the lumber industry and the lumber export trade are destined to develop can be indicated, beginning with the foundation of the industry, the forests.

The fairly dense stands of oak forests in the country are rapidly disappearing, and as the supply comes more and more from scattered groves, wood lots, and even individual trees, the price can be expected to increase steadily and the cut decline, as has already been the case with walnut and hickory.

Red gum seems destined to play a much more important rôle in both the domestic and the foreign market as a fine furniture and finish wood. Stands of great extent in the South are still untouched, and as this tree grows in swamps and in soils not so well adapted to agriculture as those where oak is found, the possibilities of its continuous production in quantity are much greater.

The southern yellow pine, which in its various species now constitutes the greatest American export wood, grows in a rather compact forest belt on fairly good agricultural and grazing land. Longleaf-pine forests, once cut out, are gone forever. The slow growth of the tree, the prevalence of fires that kill the young seedling, and the greater value of the cut-over land for other uses are the factors that now insure this event. As the supply diminishes, the value of

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stumpage will rise to a point where it would ordinarily become profitable to hold back large areas from the market. Unfortunately, long-leaf pine has not the longevity of the practically indestructible California redwood. Upon reaching a certain maturity it is attacked by a rot, producing the so-called red-heart deterioration of the heartwood, the most valuable part of the tree. As the stands of long-leaf pine over large areas seem, for the most part, to be of about the same age, the difficulty of preventing this huge supply from coming rapidly on the market is evident.

Although long-leaf pine seems fated to disappear as a commercial tree, there are several other species of yellow pine, notably short-leaf and slash pine (the latter of great value), which grow rapidly enough and sustain themselves well enough to provide what commercial stands the Southern States can reasonably hope to support in the future.

If the present rate of annual cutting continues the commercial stands of long-leaf pine will be gone in some 25 years, and the pine production and pine exports thereafter will come largely from scattered second and third growth stands. This stage has already been reached in the white-pine regions of New England and New York.

For the permanent lumber supply of the future the United States must rely in great part on the far Northwest, where the heavy rainfall seems to be the condition of the quick and heavy growth of many valuable species and where immense areas of land occupied by forests old and young are likely to remain long unclaimed by the farmer and the sheep herder or cattleman.

With proper care of the great forest resources of the country, with restrictions as to cutting, and with extensive reforestation, wide areas almost useless for anything else can be made to yield a great and steady stream of forest products. Sweden, which has been cutting and exporting lumber for centuries, owes to its wise forest policy the fact that it is still half-covered with forests that are regarded as its most enduring and profitable national asset.

The rising prices of lumber will eventually enforce the greater utilization of the tree, more careful manufacturing, and better organization of marketing. The day of stumpage speculation has about passed. From now on profits will be extracted from the lumber business mainly by scientific management.

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APPENDIXES.

Appendix A.—AMERICAN LUMBER FOR THE BRITISH MARKET.

The following memorandum, presenting data with regard to the American lumber available for exportation to the United Kingdom after the war, was prepared by Trade Commissioner John R. Walker while in London in January, 1918. Copies were sent to the British Timber Controller, the British (Government) Board of Trade, and various architectural associations in England that are interested in this question. The memorandum was therefore intended to reach the British lumber consumer and the terms used are those familiar to the British trade; but it is published here because it can not fail to be of value to the seller as well as to the buyer of lumber. For assistance in editing the report, acknowledgment is made to the Forest Service.

SOUTHERN PINE AND DOUGLAS FIR.

Since southern yellow pine and Douglas fir constitute more than half of the total annual production of timber in the United States and are the woods preeminently suited for use in general construction work, the present discussion will be confined to these two species.

The American southern-pine forest stretches along the coastal plain from Virginia to Texas and embraces one of the largest forest areas in the country. This forest embraces three species of pine timber—long-leaf, short-leaf, and loblolly, all of which are included under the term "southern yellow pine." The long-leaf pine is the timber that has been known in the British market as pitch pine, and the short-leaf and loblolly pines have been known in that market as North Carolina pine.

The annual production of sawed timber from this forest area is in excess of 7,000,000 standards, and it is estimated that this output can be maintained for a period of 10 to 15 years, after which it will decline. The chief characteristics of the long-leaf pine are that it is of relatively slow growth and consequently close-grained and that it possesses exceptional strength. It consists largely of heart wood as distinguished from sap wood, and contains a large quantity of pitch and turpentine, for which reasons it has great durability when exposed to moisture. The loblolly pine, on the contrary, is a tree of rapid growth and consequently wide-grained, and is almost altogether a sap wood. It has less strength and less durability than long-leaf pine but is better adapted for use in joinery, as it is more easily worked and takes paint better because it contains less pitch and turpentine. The short-leaf pine occupies a middle place between the long-leaf and the loblolly. Certain specimens approximate the long-leaf pine and others the loblolly pine.

Southern yellow pine is the wood that is used more largely than any other for general housebuilding and construction work in the United States. For interior finish and joinery and for the framework of buildings the three woods are used interchangeably; when exceptional strength is wanted dense material is specified, and when exceptional durability is wanted, sap-free material is specified. While it is the long-leaf pine that most readily complies with these requirements, yet a short-leaf or a loblolly timber that also complies with the requirements gives equal satisfaction. The test for strength is not the species to which the particular stick belongs but the percentage of hard or sum-

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mer wood, and the test for durability in dense wood of the yellow-pine species is not the species but the percentage of heart wood.

In the large forest area of the north Pacific coast the principal species is Douglas fir, or Oregon pine. The other important commercial species are western hemlock, silver spruce (Sitka spruce), and western red cedar.

The annual production of Douglas fir in the United States is approximately 2,500,000 standards. Across the boundary line in British Columbia there is a further production of 400,000 standards, which must be considered along with the United States production of Douglas fir, for the reason that it comes from the same forest area and is manufactured to the same standards. It is estimated that the present annual production of Douglas fir can be maintained for a period of 150 years, but in the natural course of things the annual production will increase and the life of this industry be correspondingly decreased. Douglas fir is used in the United States interchangeably with southern pine in all sections of the country where transportation considerations permit competition between the two woods.

In both the southern-yellow-pine and the Douglas-fir forests the logging practice is entirely different from the practice with which the British timber trade is familiar in Scandinavia, Russia, and eastern Canada. In these regions logging is confined to the winter months, and the production of sawed timber during the succeeding summer months is necessarily limited to the supply of logs that are brought out of the woods during the winter. In the southern and western forests of the United States, on the other hand, logging operations continue throughout the year and within certain limits can be enlarged from time to time to correspond to the demand for sawed timber. The Douglas fir being almost entirely free of sap, no difficulty is encountered during the summer months with respect to staining of sap wood, but in the southern-pine forest sap stain is very liable to occur in the sap lumber. It is now prevented at many mills when the timber is felled during the summer months by running the lumber through a tank containing a solution of bicarbonate of soda or certain other chemicals. It is the general practice in both the southern-pine and Douglas-fir milling industries to dry the medium and upper grades of boards and planks by artificial means immediately after sawing. Perhaps half of the larger mills dry scantlings in the open air by a process of open piling that prevents sap stain. Normally the stock of converted timber on hand at the mills in both the south and the west does not exceed one month's production, but of course the stock varies from time to time according to the state of the market.

No safe conclusions can be arrived at as to the probable supplies available for shipment after the war from a consideration of the stocks of sawed timber on hand, for the reason that in the great majority of cases the timber would be felled, the logs converted, and the sawed timber dried after the order was received, as all these operations normally would not require more than two to four weeks' time.

The exports of southern pine from the United States to all Europe for the year ended June 30, 1914, were approximately 350,000 standards. The exportation of Oregon pine to Europe was approximately 20,000 standards. A doubling of the exports to Europe of southern pine would involve an increase in production of only 5 per cent, or, without any increase in production, a similar curtailment of domestic consumption. The exports of southern pine to the United Kingdom for the year ended June 30, 1914, were approximately 115,000 standards, or 1½ per cent of the total production of these woods. Quadrupling the exports of southern pine to the United Kingdom would therefore involve an increase in the production of this wood of less than 5 per cent. It is my opinion that, provided tonnage is available and other considerations subsequently noted are overcome, the United States could furnish 250,000 standards of southern pine for exportation to the United Kingdom during the 12 months following the close of the war and annually thereafter for several years.[a]

The exports of Douglas fir to the United Kingdom for the year ended June 30, 1914, were approximately 17,000 standards, or two-thirds of 1 per cent of the annual production. In view of the fact that the production of Oregon pine has not yet reached its peak, and in view of the large available forest area, I think it can fairly be said that the exportation of this wood to the United Kingdom

[a] The capacity of the sawmills in the southern-pine States is about 50,000,000,000 feet per year, as compared with the usual annual cut of about 18,000,000,000 feet.

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could be greatly increased, provided that tonnage is available.[a] Making allowance for tonnage difficulties, I think it might be roughly calculated that during the year following the conclusion of the war there would be available for importation into the United Kingdom half as much Oregon pine as the foregoing estimate of pitch pine; that is, 125,000 standards.

AMERICAN STANDARD SIZES.

A bar to the larger importation of American softwoods for use in general construction work in the United Kingdom has been the fact that British architectural practice in the use of timber does not coincide with American building practice, nor with the American system of timber manufacture.

In general construction work it is the practice of British architects and engineers to specify various sections for joists, scantlings, and so forth, which are to be found among the ordinary stocks of Baltic and Russian woods. This practice is set forth in various English works on building construction, in various works regarding timber, and in building by-laws of various towns and cities.

The chief differences between the British practice and the American practice are that the sections which British usage prescribes are materially larger than the sizes used in American practice, and also the sizes specified in British practice must be full-size material, whereas under American practice the actual finished size of various scantlings is somewhat scant of the nominal size.

The fundamental reason for this difference is probably that the British building practice has grown up around the softwoods from the Baltic, and the British standard of sizes has been adapted to the physical properties of these woods; whereas in recent years, since Americans have been building with the southern and western pines, their building practice and their standard sizes have been reduced below the standards that prevail in England, because in their opinion the superior physical properties of American woods make the more severe English requirements unnecessary.

The general practice in the southern and the western yellow-pine industries is to manufacture all material to even feet in length and to even inches in width. The "stock sizes" of American woods are 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 inches in width by 1, 1¼, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 inches in thickness, by 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, and 20 feet in length. The custom with the sawmills is to set their saws to produce the dimensions given in the green timber. These stock sizes are then piled for drying—the smaller sizes and boards frequently being artificially dried by dry kilns—and in the process of drying the timber shrinks slightly below the sizes named. The rate of shrinkage in these woods is not so uniform as in the slower-growing Baltic and Canadian woods. Consequently the general practice is to run these dry boards, scantlings, and joists through a planing or equalizing machine, which finishes them to a size somewhat smaller than the scant size of the rough dried material. In other words, a 6 by 2 southern-yellow-pine joist would be exactly that size when it came from the sawmill; after it had dried it would perhaps be 1⅞ by 5¾ inches. The standard or finished size of a 6-inch joist of southern yellow pine, however, is 5⅝ inches, which is arrived at by running the stick through a planing machine and planing one edge so as to produce this dimension. When desired, one side of the joist is also planed without extra charge down to the standard size of 1⅝ inches. The standard dressed size of all southern-yellow-pine scantlings and joists is ½ of an inch scant of the nominal green size. All inch lumber is finished to ⅛ of an inch in thickness, and when the edges are planed the standard width is ½ inch scant of the nominal or green size. Flooring strips are finished ⅛ of an inch or 1⅛₆ inches in thickness, and 2¼, 3¼, and 5¼ inches face measure exclusive of the tongue, and all of this material is tongued and grooved. The nominal green size of the flooring strip that produces a piece of flooring ⅛ by 3¼ inches in width is 1 by 4 inches.

Elaborate tests have been made by the United States Forest Products Laboratory and by the Canadian Forest Service to determine the strength of various woods, and these tests indicate that the southern pines are 33⅓ to 50 per cent stronger than Canadian and Baltic yellow pine, red pine, and spruce, and that Oregon pine is 25 per cent stronger than these northern woods. I have also seen the results of special tests made in England for various purposes, which confirm the general comparisons given. It therefore appears that while a 6 by 2 southern-pine joist, dried and finished to 1⅝ by 5⅝ inches, would have 12½ per

[a] The mill capacity of Washington and Oregon is about 10,000,000,000 feet per year, or double the present cut, and will probably be increased.

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cent less cross section or cubic content than a 6 by 2 Baltic or Canadian redwood or white-wood full-size joist; yet its strength would be about 15 per cent greater than that of the larger joist of Canadian or Baltic wood.

The imports of American softwoods into the United Kingdom have been confined to large timbers that can not be obtained elsewhere and to sawed deals and boards specially manufactured for this market, to measure full size after drying.

Only a small proportion of the sawmills in the United States have heretofore catered for the export trade, chiefly because it is difficult to coordinate the export trade with the domestic trade, except where the mill is in a position to saw upon a large scale. The English importer has not been able to draw upon the enormous stocks of converted sizes of softwoods that are always on hand at American mills, but has had to confine his purchases to the limited number of mills that have engaged in this business, and it is the general practice among the export mills to obtain orders for export stock before manufacturing. The result is that export stock is to a large extent shipped green, whereas domestic stock is to be a very large extent shipped dry, which is a great advantage from the standpoint of the actual consumer of the timber.

Furthermore, the selling price of export stock is generally above the level of the corresponding grades of domestic stock, because export stock is specially manufactured and must be charged with the expense incident thereto, and also with the loss involved in reducing to the standard American finished sizes the degraded material that is not good enough for export.

If in the after-the-war building program English architects see fit to provide for the use of American standard sizes, when American woods are used, it will be possible to purchase material from any sawmill in the United States, and there are 4,500 that cut 1,000,000 feet or more annually. Dry stocks will always be available, and by shipping finished material, a saving in tonnage will be effected, which together with the saving in the original cost of the material, will probably amount to a saving in the delivered cost of £4 per standard.

Furthermore, the standardization of grades in the domestic trade has been developed to a much finer point than in the export trade. The grades are more numerous and more specific, and there is a well-organized inspection bureau operated by the National Association of Lumber Manufacturers, which supervises the grading of individual mills to see that the standard grades are maintained. The Pacific Lumber Inspection Bureau supervises the export grading of Douglas fir. But for southern yellow pine there are only general rules; there is no inspection bureau that supervises the grading of export stock. Generally understood grades and the strict maintenance of grades would unquestionably conduce to the extension of the trade between the United States and England and would result in a substantial monetary saving to both sides. Adoption of American standard sizes and American domestic grading would be long steps in this direction.

The grades of southern yellow pine are as follows: Grade A is free of all defects. Grade B admits very small defects. No. 1 Common admits sound knots, which do not affect the strength or general utility of the piece. No. 2 Common admits large knots and other defects that do not destroy the availability of the material for the cheaper forms of construction work. It is a grade which about corresponds to the material used in the English market for box-making purposes. No. 1 Common about corresponds to a Swedish No. 3. Grade B would about correspond to the best material obtainable in the Baltic. In none of the grades above described is bright sap regarded as a defect. When all-heart material is wanted this must be specified, and it involves an extra cost of £2 to £4 per standard.

Heretofore the English market has demanded practically sap-free material, but I am convinced that this has resulted from the fact that American export stock is specially manufactured and shipped green, and if sap material is shipped green it becomes stained in transit and is unsatisfactory to the user. Where the material is dried before shipment, however, sap material is as serviceable as hard material for all purposes that do not involve exposure to moisture.

Three factors will make for a large saving in cost if American grading and American standard sizes are adopted in the English market. First, it will not be necessary to manufacture this stock specially; second, there will be a large saving in freight cost through shipping converted sizes and dry stock; and third, it will be possible to utilize a much larger proportion of bright sap material.

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The English practice with respect to flooring in ordinary house construction is to build floors of 5¼ and 6 inch Baltic red or white wood, which is square-edged and full of knots. The American practice is to manufacture all flooring tongued and grooved and from narrow strips, because narrow strips practically free of knots can be obtained at a comparatively small cost, and Americans like material free of knots, because they use rugs largely instead of carpets.

The standard sizes of American flooring are 2¼ inches face, which is manufactured from a 3-inch strip, and 3¼ inches face, which is manufactured from a 4-inch strip. The finished thickness of American flooring is ⅛ of an inch, instead of ¼ of an inch, as is customary in England; but in the harder pitch pine and Oregon pine ⅛ of an inch will afford much more wear than ¼ of an inch in the softer Baltic woods. When no stipulation is made as to the position of the grain in flooring, the material is described as flat-grained. When material is wanted in which the grain is vertical, it is described as quarter-sawed edge-grained, or vertical-grained; and this material costs £2 to £4 per standard more than the ordinary flat-grained flooring.

Heretofore the cheap doors that the English market has consumed have come almost entirely from Norway and Sweden. In the United States millions of doors are made of western yellow pine, Oregon pine, and white pine. The last named is known in England as yellow pine. The difficulty that has stood in the way of shipping cheap doors to the United Kingdom is that the American door is a doweled door, whereas the British market has become accustomed to the mortised door, and no one has undertaken the task of introducing the doweled door. I have discussed the relative merits of the doweled and the mortised door with large door merchants and with building contractors in the United Kingdom, and almost without exception they have agreed that a properly made doweled door is just as strong and as serviceable as the mortised door. As indicating the strength and durability of doweling, my attention has been directed to the fact that nearly all the fine old English furniture was doweled, and this has lasted through the centuries.

One advantage that the American door has over the Swedish door is that in the best grade it is made of knot-free material and therefore presents a much more attractive appearance when finished in its natural color. For all interior purposes southern-pine and Oregon-pine doors are from every standpoint equal to the Swedish door. For front doors the American white-pine door is to be preferred.

USES OF AMERICAN WOODS—FLOORING AND DOORS.

For interior constructional purposes southern pine and Oregon pine are the most available and are as suitable as any other woods. In work that is exposed to the elements and for use in direct contact with moisture the wood par excellence is cypress, and after it sequoia (redwood) and western red cedar. All-heart pitch pine and creosoted Oregon pine are also useful for these purposes. It is unnecessary to discuss the special uses to which the large variety of American hardwoods are adapted, because the United States is already the chief source of supply for hardwoods, and their uses are well appreciated in the British market.

Appendix B.—THE WEBB ACT.

The Webb foreign-trade act, which permits association of firms or corporations in export trade, was approved by the President on April 10, 1918, and becomes effective from that date. The full text of the act is given below:

An act to promote export trade, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the words "export trade" wherever used in this act mean solely trade or commerce in goods, wares, or merchandise exported, or in the course of being exported from the United States or any Territory thereof to any foreign nation; but the words "export trade" shall not be deemed to include the production, manufacture, or selling

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for consumption or for resale, within the United States or any Territory thereof, of such goods, wares, or merchandise, or any act in the course of such production, manufacture, or selling for consumption or for resale.

That the words "trade within the United States" wherever used in this act mean trade or commerce among the several States or in any Territory of the United States, or in the District of Columbia, or between any such Territory and another, or between any such Territory or Territories and any State or States or the District of Columbia, or between the District of Columbia and any State or States.

That the word "association" wherever used in this act means any corporation or combination, by contract or otherwise, of two or more persons, partnerships, or corporations.

SEC. 2. That nothing contained in the act entitled "An act to protect trade and commerce against unlawful restraints and monopolies," approved July second, eighteen hundred and ninety, shall be construed as declaring to be illegal an association entered into for the sole purpose of engaging in export trade and actually engaged solely in such export trade, or any agreement made or act done in the course of export trade by such association, provided such association, agreement, or act is not in restraint of trade within the United States, and is not in restraint of the export trade of any domestic competitor of such association: *And provided further*, That such association does not, either in the United States or elsewhere, enter into any agreement, understanding, or conspiracy, or do any act which artificially or intentionally enhances or depresses prices within the United States of commodities of the class exported by such association, or which substantially lessens competition within the United States or otherwise restrains trade therein.

SEC. 3. That nothing contained in section seven of the act entitled "An act to supplement existing laws against unlawful restraints and monopolies, and for other purposes," approved October fifteenth, nineteen hundred and fourteen, shall be construed to forbid the acquisition or ownership by any corporation of the whole or any part of the stock or other capital of any corporation organized solely for the purpose of engaging in export trade, and actually engaged solely in such export trade, unless the effect of such acquisition or ownership may be to restrain trade or substantially lessen competition within the United States.

SEC. 4. That the prohibition against "unfair methods of competition" and the remedies provided for enforcing said prohibition contained in the act entitled "An act to create a Federal Trade Commission, to define its powers and duties, and for other purposes," approved September twenty-sixth, nineteen hundred and fourteen, shall be construed as extending to unfair methods of competition used in export trade against competitors engaged in export trade, even though the acts constituting such unfair methods are done without the territorial jurisdiction of the United States.

SEC. 5. That every association now engaged solely in export trade, within sixty days after the passage of this act, and every association entered into hereafter which engages solely in export trade, within thirty days after its creation, shall file with the Federal Trade Commission a verified written statement setting forth the location of its offices or places of business and the names and addresses of all its officers and of all its stockholders or members, and if a corporation, a copy of its certificate or articles of incorporation and by-laws, and if unincorporated, a copy of its articles or contract of association, and on the first day of January of each year thereafter it shall make a like statement of the location of its offices or places of business and the names and addresses of all its officers and of all its stockholders or members and of all amendments to and changes in its articles or certificate of incorporation or in its articles of contract of association. It shall also furnish to the commission such information as the commission may require as to its organization, business, conduct, practices, management, and relation to other associations, corporations, partnerships, and individuals. Any association which shall fail so to do shall not have the benefit of the provisions of section two and section three of this act, and it shall also forfeit to the United States the sum of $100 for each and every day of the continuance of such failure, which forfeiture shall be payable

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into the Treasury of the United States, and shall be recoverable in a civil suit in the name of the United States brought in the district where the association has its principal office, or in any district in which it shall do business. It shall be the duty of the various district attorneys, under the direction of the Attorney General of the United States, to prosecute for the recovery of the forfeiture. The costs and expenses of such prosecution shall be paid out of the appropriation for the expenses of the courts of the United States.

Whenever the Federal Trade Commission shall have reason to believe that an association or any agreement made or act done by such association is in restraint of trade within the United States or in restraint of the export trade of any domestic competitor of such association, or that an association either in the United States or elsewhere has entered into any agreement, understanding, or conspiracy, or done any act which artificially or intentionally enhances or depresses prices within the United States of commodities of the class exported by such association, or which substantially lessens competition within the United States or otherwise restrains trade therein, it shall summon such association, its officers, and agents to appear before it, and thereafter conduct an investigation into the alleged violations of law. Upon investigation, if it shall conclude that the law has been violated, it may make to such association recommendations for the readjustment of its business, in order that it may thereafter maintain its organization and management and conduct its business in accordance with law. If such association fails to comply with the recommendations of the Federal Trade Commission, said commission shall refer its findings and recommendations to the Attorney General of the United States for such action thereon as he may deem proper.

For the purpose of enforcing these provisions the Federal Trade Commission shall have all the powers, so far as applicable, given it in "An Act to create a Federal Trade Commission, to define its powers and duties, and for other purposes."

Approved, April 10, 1918.

Appendix C.—UNITED STATES LUMBER CUT IN 1916.

A total cut of 34,791,385,000 feet of lumber in 1916 was reported to the Forest Service by the 17,269 mills that returned schedules. It is estimated that 30,081 sawmills were in operation during the year. By a series of deductions based upon previous census work the computed total cut is 39,807,251,000 feet. In all probability the actual cut was slightly in excess of 40,000,000,000 feet.

Production in 1916 was hampered by a lack of shipping facilities generally and unfavorable weather conditions in some regions, which tended toward curtailment; among the smaller mills the heavy demand for labor and the consequent higher wages paid resulted in a smaller output than would ordinarily be the case in a year of good demand.

The number of mills actually reporting in 1916 was greater than for the preceding year, but both the figures and the trade conditions approach more nearly those of 1913, when conditions were fairly normal.

The following tabulation, arranged by States, shows the aggregate number of mills reporting and the quantity of lumber sawed in 1916, together with the computed cut. The statistics for the mills cutting 5,000,000 feet or more each are almost complete, since all but a very few of the larger operators reported output.

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States.	Active mills reporting.	Production.	
		Reported quantity.	Computed quantity.
	Number.	*M feet b. m.*	*M feet b. m.*
Washington	444	4,492,997	4,494,000
Louisiana	329	3,910,866	4,200,000
Mississippi	627	2,353,891	2,730,000
Oregon	525	2,221,854	2,222,000
Texas	301	1,723,826	2,100,000
Arkansas	706	1,668,493	1,910,000
North Carolina	1,532	1,657,032	2,100,000
California and Nevada	182	1,413,541	1,420,000
Alabama	744	1,310,653	1,720,000
Wisconsin	386	1,240,778	1,600,000
Florida	225	1,179,717	1,425,000
Virginia	1,210	1,036,209	1,335,000
Michigan	341	1,019,183	1,230,000
West Virginia	475	1,009,156	1,220,000
Minnesota	211	1,063,046	1,220,000
Maine	606	866,749	935,000
Idaho	190	846,107	849,600
Georgia	710	753,930	1,000,000
South Carolina	443	746,301	857,000
Pennsylvania	934	565,895	750,000
Tennessee	768	488,242	700,000
Montana	103	383,884	383,900
Kentucky	597	374,074	525,000
New York	1,260	349,908	400,000
New Hampshire	305	336,064	385,000
Oklahoma	91	232,198	240,000
Ohio	546	219,042	280,000
Missouri	389	219,244	260,000
Indiana	471	209,354	270,000
Massachusetts	260	176,268	210,000
Vermont	335	180,234	200,000
Arizona	17	92,872	93,270
New Mexico	55	80,406	91,600
Maryland	213	68,988	90,237
Colorado	96	67,368	77,580
Connecticut	145	60,163	75,000
Illinois	114	43,731	60,000
New Jersey	109	30,925	40,000
South Dakota	27	26,450	29,650
Iowa	61	18,027	20,000
Rhode Island	19	17,827	18,000
Wyoming	52	16,619	18,495
Utah	76	9,383	9,385
Delaware	34	9,356	12,000
Kansas	5	534	534
United States	17,269	34,791,385	39,807,251

The following table shows the reported and computed cut by species in 1916:

Kinds of wood.	Reported production.	Computed production.	Kinds of wood.	Reported production.	Computed production.
	M ft. b. m.	*M ft. b. m.*		*M ft. b. m.*	*M ft. b. m.*
Yellow pine	13,411,411	15,055,000	Beech	283,363	360,000
Douglas fir	5,413,431	5,416,000	Tupelo	214,239	275,000
White pine	2,330,831	2,700,000	Basswood	209,275	275,000
Oak	2,164,633	3,300,000	Elm	195,266	240,000
Hemlock	1,986,653	2,350,000	White fir	189,699	190,000
Western pine	1,684,987	1,690,000	Sugar pine	169,247	169,250
Spruce	1,129,750	1,250,000	Ash	156,204	210,000
Cypress	945,350	1,000,000	Cottonwood	134,980	200,000
Maple	809,341	975,000	Balsam fir	97,165	125,000
Gum, red and sap	651,879	800,000	Hickory	93,454	125,000
Redwood	490,828	490,850	Walnut	61,167	90,000
Chestnut	419,581	535,000	Lodgepole pine	28,226	30,900
Yellow poplar	394,854	560,000	Sycamore	28,035	40,000
Larch and tamarack	376,731	455,000	All other	32,859	40,351
Birch	365,943	450,000			
Cedar	322,008	410,000	Total	34,791,385	39,807,251

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The reported cut and computed cut are divided among five classes of mills arranged according to quantity produced, as follows:

Mills cutting—	Mills reporting.	Reported cut.	Mills cutting (estimated).	Computed cut.
	Number.	*M feet.*	*Number.*	*M feet.*
50 to 499 M feet	10,958	2,101,474	21,037	4,027,912
500 to 999 M feet	2,577	1,736,787	4,594	3,096,760
1,000 to 4,999 M feet	2,363	4,575,926	3,041	5,858,675
5,000 to 9,999 M feet	464	3,365,902	484	3,513,767
10,000 and more M feet	907	23,011,296	925	23,310,137
Total	17,269	34,791,385	30,081	39,807,251

To permit ready comparison with the lumber production of previous years, the reported cut and estimated cut for 13 years are shown in the following table:

Years.	Reported cut of lumber.	Number of active mills reporting.	Estimated total cut of lumber.
	M feet.		*M feet.*
1904	34,135,139	19,127	43,000,000
1905	30,502,961	11,666	43,500,000
1906	37,550,736	22,398	46,000,000
1907	40,256,154	28,850	46,000,000
1908	33,224,369	31,231	42,000,000
1909	44,509,761	42,041	44,509,761
1910	40,018,282	31,934	44,500,000
1911	37,003,207	28,107	43,000,000
1912	39,158,414	29,648	45,000,000
1913	38,387,009	21,668	44,000,000
1914	37,346,023	27,506	40,500,000
1915	30,985,473	16,815	38,000,000
1916	34,791,385	17,269	40,000,000

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

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Prepared by

LEW B. CLARK

Secretary to Commercial Attaché, Buenos Aires

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, April 27, 1918.

SIR: Submitted herewith is a report on the Argentine market for wearing apparel, prepared by Lew B. Clark, secretary to the commercial attaché at Buenos Aires. In gathering the data and in the preparation of the report Mr. Clark had the assistance of two experts familiar with the clothing business of the River Plate countries, and he also acknowledges valuable help and courteous attention from chiefs of Government departments and from persons connected with the retail distribution and manufacture of wearing apparel in Argentina.

The report gives the results of a careful study of the market, made with particular reference to extending American trade in Argentina, and presents very full data respecting local preferences in styles and qualities of clothing, trade practices, customs duties and requirements, together with general information and suggestions that should prove valuable to American manufacturers who are now selling wearing apparel in South America and also to those who contemplate entering that market. Statistics of clothing imports and a review of the domestic manufacture of clothing are also included.

A large number of samples, showing the character and qualities of foreign and domestic wearing apparel commonly sold in Argentine markets, were collected during the investigation and may be examined by interested persons at the Bureau's district office in New York City.

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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WEARING APPAREL IN ARGENTINA.

INTRODUCTION.

COMMERCIAL STANDARDS AND CUSTOMS.

The American manufacturer or exporter who intends entering the Argentine market in a serious manner, with a view to cultivating and retaining it as a permanent outlet for his product, should recognize at once that a half-hearted or seminegligent attitude is almost sure to spell failure, and any belittling or handling of the business as a side issue will result in a correspondingly smaller percentage of success. It demands and, to a manufacturer who takes pride in seeing his merchandise appreciated and attractively displayed, merits the closest attention. Here his goods are going to be shown side by side with the latest and finest that Europe produces. The merchants who make up the local buying market are far from being a group of guileless children in the commercial game, to be charmed into signing big orders by the display of a bit of tinsel or a gaudy waistcoat. They have, on the contrary, received their education and training in the centers of Europe, where the sharpest wits are required to meet the keen competition. These men know the best and the worst merchandise, and at times they buy of both grades, but any attempt to dispose of "seconds" to them, except as such, will be certain to meet with a prompt and cool rebuff. The market in normal times is as well served as many a North American one, and the merchants have a full knowledge of both values and varieties. They are accustomed to being offered all the grades of merchandise up to the best that Europe can produce, and they know very well what the different grades are and what they ought to cost.

Many of the complaints of poor treatment by American houses have been not on the grounds of price or packing or delivery but on the justifiable basis of disparity between sample and shipment. Some American salesmen canvass the market and take orders on beautiful samples which the local buyers recognize to be good values, and then, in fulfillment thereof, the home firm ships down a consignment of seconds, or worse, which are manifestly inferior to the quality of the sample, evidently trusting or hoping that the local merchant will not notice the difference or knows no better. In such cases, for the firm to talk of manufacturing difficulties or of a compromise is futile.

IMPORTANCE OF OBSERVING TRADE PREFERENCES.

The Argentine buyer can not understand why an American manufacturer should send his representative to this country with a line

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of samples on which he is not prepared or does not care to make deliveries. Perhaps it is because of the habit acquired in the United States of easy adjustment or of substitution in a tolerating and adaptable market, such as he is accustomed to serving in his domestic trade, and where communication throughout the country is practically on a five-minute basis. The Argentine merchant, however, can not be expected to know all the peculiarities of our markets, and if he does it will not alter the lifelong notions of the people to whom he expects to dispose of the goods. But he does know that if Juan Garcia, in Salta, has chosen cotton ribbed stockings, he is not going to accept sheer seamless hose, no matter how much superior in quality or later in style they may be. In Argentina the buyer is many thousands of miles in distance and months in time from the exporter in the United States, and there are no long-distance phones here to make it easy to show Señor Garcia the advantages of seamless socks, even provided the Salta customer be of an adaptable nature, which generally he is not. In other words, the local market wants what it asks for, and what, in many cases, it has paid for—cash in New York. Something "just as good" will not do for this market, no matter how much superior the substituted article may be in the estimation of the American exporter.

From the foregoing it may be assumed that one of the best assets of an American manufacturer, entering this market for the first time, is a disposition to profit by the business experience of his clients, lending attention to their suggestions and following their instructions and counsels to the letter.

EXTENT OF MARKET FOR CLOTHING.

The manufacturer who is planning to establish his business in Argentina will first study the question of whether or not the size of the market warrants the expenditure of money and effort necessary to effect an entrance with his product. There are in the Republic slightly less than 8,000,000 people, but for the manufacturer of wearing apparel, at least, practically every one of these represents a more or less potential consuming unit. The Argentine climate is rigorous enough to make clothing a universal requirement of the inhabitants, and for this reason the population of 7,885,237 persons stands for that many consumers of wearing apparel. This fact should be taken into consideration in deciding upon the advisability of seeking a portion of the country's trade in that line. Furthermore, there is no doubt that one day Argentina will support a population of many times its present size, and when that time comes the market will be one of the highest order.

As to their buying power and their disposition toward spending for dress, it may be stated that the Argentinians are naturally free spenders and, generally speaking, are willing to pay liberally for what they wear. Wealthy clients are accustomed to demanding the best the home market affords, and if that be not good enough the dealer is often instructed to get the desired article from abroad. Nor is this characteristic confined to the wealthy class alone. The 100-peso-a-month clerk in a stationer's shop will receive customers in a carefully pressed, black broadcloth cutaway coat and gray trousers; and the operating personnel of the railroads and tramways demand

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two new uniforms yearly to satisfy their ideas of personal appearance during working hours. Peons on the haciendas in the country will spend a week's wages for a 5-peso silk kerchief to knot about their throat on "dress" occasions. From this it may be rightly judged that the Argentinian, true to the general conception of Latin American temperament, is rather liberal than thrifty in his treatment of the question of expenditure for dress.

GEOGRAPHIC FEATURES OF THE COUNTRY.

If an ordinary wall map of the Western Hemisphere be folded upon the Equator, it will be found that the bleak hills and plains of Tierra del Fuego correspond in geographical position to the frozen lands of Labrador; that the Patagonian steppes and lake regions of the south cover that portion of North America included in the St. Lawrence River system and the New England States, while the remaining part of Argentina, representing about two-thirds of the territorial expanse of the country, lies over the area off the Atlantic coast from Long Island Sound down to a point opposite southern Florida. Although it is situated largely in the Temperate Zone, the climatic conditions of Argentina are more benign than those to which the dwellers of the corresponding regions in the Northern Hemisphere are accustomed. The winters here are not marked by the severity that they are in the United States. Sheep and cattle roam at large over the Argentine plains throughout the year, and no provision is made for their shelter, except in the southernmost reaches of the Republic. It is only in these isolated and sparsely settled regions, too, that snow and ice are seen, and in three-fourths of the Republic the thermometer rarely registers below the freezing point. On the other hand, Argentina is by no means a tropical country. Along its littoral zone the moisture in the atmosphere makes such cold weather as there is keenly felt, and the natives find it convenient to dress quite as warmly as do the inhabitants of the United States. The summers are fairly long, usually pleasant, and not excessively warm, so that in general the climate of Argentina may be considered decidedly agreeable.

A geodetic survey of Argentina has not been completed by the Government, and its superficial area has been variously estimated at 1,081,062 to 1,139,197 square miles. The official census of 1914, however, adopts the measurements of the engineer Charles Chapeaurouge, 1,079,947 square miles, for the Republic.

CONDITIONS FAVORING AGRICULTURE.

Argentina, although in the main a level, pampa country, is not without mountainous sections which relieve the general tone of flatness. Along its western side rise the great Andean peaks, forming a natural barrier between Argentina and Chile, and greatly affecting the commercial and social life of that section of the Republic. In its northern half this mountain chain is mostly barren and uncultivated, but in the southern section lies a region of lakes and fertile plains and valleys. Along the foothills of these mountains are great tracts of virgin land, adapted to the growing of stock or the raising of cereals. Lakes of sweet pure water abound, and

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there is no lack of streams for irrigation or power purposes. At present this section of the country is handicapped by its inaccessibility, but the completion of two railroads into it, now under construction, will be a big step toward eliminating this difficulty. This is perhaps the most beautiful part of the Republic, especially in the eyes of the American visitor or resident, and with improved communication with the rest of the country its progress is bound to be rapid.

Another group of mountains is found in and around Cordoba, the geographic center of the Republic. This group is known locally as the Cordoba Hills, and it is believed that they are rich depositories of mineral products, such as mica, asbestos, and sulphur, while fine qualities of limestone and granite are being extracted in large quantities. In addition to their mineral value, the lofty altitudes and wonderfully healthful climate have established them as a resort of considerable importance during the summer season.

RIVER SYSTEMS.

An important part is played by water transportation in the commercial and industrial life of Argentina. The river system may be separated into five divisions, the first and most important of which is the River Plate basin, to which pertain the Parana, the Uruguay, and the Paraguay Rivers, forming the principal branches, together with the Pilcomayo, Bermejo, Iguazu, Salado, and Carcarana Rivers, and their respective tributaries, which drain the northern and eastern part of the country; the second or central system consists of the Primero, Segundo, Tercero, Cuarto, and Quinto Rivers, which are in the center of the Republic; the third system, having its fount mostly in the mountains of the western cordillera, includes the western Bermejo, Jachal, San Juan, Mendoza, Tunuyan, Diamante, Atuel Rivers, and many others; coming from the snows of the mountains, they are generally soon lost in the swamps and marshes of the plains below and are of but slight commercial value; the fourth or pampa system numbers those rivers flowing across the southern stretches of the Province of Buenos Aires and into the Atlantic; while the fifth and last includes those rivers crossing the southern territories from the Andes to the Atlantic, and which may be called the Patagonian system. They are the Colorado, Negro, Chubut, Deseado, Santa Cruz, and Gallegos. Broadly speaking, only those rivers comprised in the first system are available for commercial navigation, and on their banks are located four of the first seven cities of the Republic—Buenos Aires, Rosario, La Plata, and Santa Fe. As far as Rosario, over 300 kilometers (186 miles) up the river, fairly large, ocean-going tramp freighters and passenger steamers may safely ascend, but above this point the navigation is mainly confined to river steamers. The other river systems of the Republic are valuable primarily as irrigating streams, although in some instances their currents are being utilized to generate electric power, and more extensive use for this purpose may be expected as the country develops industrially.

Argentina possesses an excellent seaboard, stretching some 1,500 miles along the Atlantic, from Cape San Antonio at the north to Tierra del Fuego in the south. As yet very little has been done in

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the nature of port improvements along this seaboard, although at least one first-class city has been established thereon in a natural bay. This is the port of Bahia Blanca, where considerable money has been expended by the Government in port works and harbor improvements and where a fine naval base has been established. Judging from the progress already shown, this city is destined to become one of the most important in the country before many years. Other smaller and much less important ports are Rawson and Santa Cruz.

POPULATION AND URBAN GROWTH.

While great in expanse of territory, Argentina is very sparsely settled. In a list of 27 representative States of the world, only 2 have so few inhabitants per square mile as Argentina. These two States are Canada, with a superficial area of 3,729,665 square miles and 2.17 inhabitants per square mile, and Australia, having 2,974,581 square miles of land surface and 1.75 inhabitants per square mile. By the last official census, taken in 1914, Argentina had 7,885,237 inhabitants, or 7.3 per square mile. It is interesting to note that if this country possessed a density of population no greater than that of Mexico it would have practically three times as many inhabitants as it now has, while an average density equal to that of the United States would endow it with approximately 35,000,000 people. The country is easily capable of supporting more than that figure. In the most thickly settled portion of the country, the Province of Tucuman, there are 37.29 inhabitants per square mile. In the Provinces of Buenos Aires and Santa Fe, where dwell the greater part of the population, the density is 18 inhabitants per square mile, based on the total area of the two Provinces. In the territories of the southern half of the country, in several of the Andean Provinces, and in the extreme north there are vast stretches of practically uninhabited lands.

INCREASE IN POPULATION OF CITIES.

During the 19 years between the census taken in 1895 and the one recently concluded for 1914, there was an extraordinary growth of the urban population at the expense of the rural. Aside from the general attractions of city life, this is ascribed to two reasons, viz, (1) the use, always increasing, of more perfect agricultural machinery, which results in a reduction of the number of laborers on the big estates, and (2) the development of large central industries in the cities, especially in cloths, textiles, leather goods, etc., dispensing with the necessity of retaining employees to do this work locally in each district. Thus, whereas by the census of 1895 the rural population of Argentina numbered 2,263,945 persons, or 57 per cent of the entire population of the country, in 1914 the total number of people dwelling outside of the cities amounted to 3,359,737, or only 42 per cent of the total. By these same figures, the urban population grew from 43 per cent of the total in 1895 to 58 per cent thereof in 1914. This shows a very appreciable movement that is important, because to a large extent it is in the cities that the uncultured natives gain their ideas and ideals of modern civilization. The figures for 18 cities indicate an average growth in the period noted of 89,986 people, and an average percentage of increase of 209.5.

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IMMIGRATION.

The tide of immigration which since 1857 has set steadily from Europe toward Argentina has had a great effect in building up the country and in molding the character of its inhabitants. The total number of immigrants since records have been kept of the movement was 4,665,723 up to June 30, 1914. By far the greater portion of immigrants have come from southern Europe, those of Italian nationality leading with 2,283,882, while Spain has sent the second largest group, 1,472,579. These two nationalities alone represent approximately 80 per cent of the total immigration, and their influence on the life and thought of the country is naturally great. The rest of the immigrants came from some 20 other countries, including fairly large quotas from Great Britain, France, and Germany. Taken altogether they form one of the two distinct elements that have gone into the making of modern Argentina. The other element consists of the mixed stock descended from the various Indian races originally inhabiting the land and including a few Negroes brought into the country during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Slavery was, however, prohibited from the first in the Argentine Republic, and to-day there are no traces of any infusion of Negro blood in the native Argentinian. As in America, the full-blooded Indian is little in evidence to-day in Argentina, except in the Provinces forming the outskirts of the Republic.

The problem of assimilating the European immigrants has not been so simple a matter, and, as in the United States, has been and is a subject of serious consideration. While there is a homestead law in force in the country, it has not been perfected to the point that the American one has, and there has been no little abuse of its privileges.

At the time the early immigrants were coming from Spain there was little or no provision for encouraging them to take up small holdings in the country. They were used to a system of semipeonage and readily fell into the same methods on arriving here. The poorer class among the rural population has therefore remained almost entirely farm dependents or employees, instead of being largely composed of progressive, independent farmers, as in the United States. The Government, however, is doing what it can to remedy the situation.

CITY OF BUENOS AIRES.

According to the recently completed census of 1914, there are seven towns in Argentina having a population in excess of 50,000. Of these, Buenos Aires, with 1,575,814 people, or more than seven times as many as the next largest city, easily leads in importance. The city is the capital of the nation and constitutes a Federal district in the largest Province. Like many other great cities of the world, Buenos Aires owes much of its importance to its favorable location. Placed at the mouth of the River Plate, which forms the main stem of the great drainage system of the whole north and east of Argentina and portions of Paraguay and Bolivia, it is the natural focal point for the great bulk of incoming supplies for half a continent. At its back are broad plains, teeming with live stock and producing huge crops of cereals that are brought to the city for shipment to

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all the great markets of the world. In these it combines the two elements that have made our two greatest cities in America what they are; like New York, it is the converging point for every line of steamships coming to the southern half of the Western Hemisphere, all of which have offices or branches here, and like Chicago, it has all the great resources of the broad pampas at its doors and is the terminus of a dozen railways whose network of transportation systems covers the Republic from north to south and east to west, all feeding directly or indirectly into the capital.

DOCKS AND WHARVES.

In 1886 work was begun on the extensive improvements of the docks and port facilities known as the "Madero project" and the inauguration of the service took place in 1897. The combined improvements now represent some 10,508 linear yards of wharfage, where ships drawing up to 26 feet of water may come alongside and receive or discharge cargoes.

In spite of the generous proportions of the improvements, the port works in times of great shipping activity are inadequate, and a contract for additional construction has been awarded. The completion of the extension will be considerably delayed by the European war, and at present little or no progress is being made.

During normal times annual arrivals and departures of boats are over 4,000 a year, but since the war broke out, and especially since the inauguration of extremely difficult navigating conditions, this number has fallen off tremendously, and it is now an exceptional month that will register 60 clearings from the port. It is also interesting to note that, whereas two or three years ago the great majority of the vessels arriving at the port from abroad were of British registry, now more than half of those coming up the channel fly the Stars and Stripes, and New York, Hampton Roads, and Boston are again becoming familiar terms in local shipping circles.

CIVIC AND COMMERCIAL PROGRESS.

As a civic center and place of residence, Buenos Aires undoubtedly ranks first among the cities of South America and compares favorably with any city of its size in the world. Its clean and well-paved streets are the subject of honest admiration by travelers from all parts of the globe, and its avenues and park improvements are indeed admirable. Within the municipal boundaries there are no less than 93 public plazas and parks, with a total area of nearly 2,700 acres. The surface extent of the city itself is 44,460 acres, being greater than that of Paris, Berlin, Hamburg, or Vienna. It is laid out on the block or chessboard plan typical of nearly all the old Spanish-founded cities in the Western Hemisphere. Its everyday life and amusement are provided for with luxurious clubs and theaters; many daily newspapers in various languages, and some of surprising completeness and development; an excellently organized tramway service, supplemented by two underground electric systems, one for freight and the other for passengers; at least two palatial department stores and a dozen others but slightly inferior in appointment and service, specialty shops for the ladies, mail-order departments for the Prov-

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inces, and plenty of high-class, comfortable hotels. A magnificent municipal theater provides winter entertainment for those who incline to grand opera and generally high-grade performances and concerts, while a splendid race course with events twice a week throughout the year adds to the attractions of this metropolis of the south.

The intense commercial and financial activity of the city, and it may be said of the country, centers in a dozen blocks not more than 10 minutes from the port. Here firms recognized the world over for their strength and ability are housed in handsome edifices of solid granite or reinforced concrete, and among them appears more than a sprinkling of American names, including banks, agricultural and other machinery houses, electrical supply firms, and several large automobile concerns. There are commercial clubs and chambers of commerce corresponding to the great nations represented here, and a stock exchange, founded in 1854, which now enrolls more than 5,000 members. The exchange has recently occupied a fine new building, built especially for it at the corner of Cangallo and 25 de Mayo Streets.

CLIMATIC AND HYGIENIC CONDITIONS.

Buenos Aires, situated almost exactly between the limits of the South Temperate Zone, enjoys a decidedly pleasant climate. The summers are rather long and not too warm, while the winter weather is clear and bracing. If the style of home construction were modified to include central heating, no discomfort from the cold would be experienced. The absence of heating apparatus gives rise to the impression that the winters here are severe, a mistaken idea, as is proven by the fact that the temperature rarely drops below freezing and snowfalls are unknown within the limits of the Federal District.

The mortality statistics show the effect of the city's salubrious climate. The death rate varies between 15 and 16 per 1,000 inhabitants, which may be considered low, and compares favorably with North American cities.

The seasons correspond to those prevailing in the United States, although their arrival, of course, comes on opposite dates; that is, the Argentine summer is from the 21st of December to the 21st of March, while its winter begins in June and continues until September. As Argentina is not a tropical country, there are no "wet" and "dry" seasons and rainfall is distributed throughout the year, much the same as in the United States. As snow never falls in Buenos Aires, there is perhaps more rain in the winter than in the summer, but the precipitation is rarely long continued and is almost invariably followed by bright sunny weather that amply compensates for the stormy days.

INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITIES.

Buenos Aires is so frequently referred to as a shipping port and a commercial distributing point for the great nation at its back, that its importance as an industrial center has been overlooked. As a matter of fact, its activity in this branch has already assumed considerable proportions and is constantly increasing, easily taking

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the leading place in the country. The industrial census for the Federal District, recently concluded, shows that in 10 years, from 1904 to 1914, the number of factories and industrial establishments operating within its limits increased from 8,877 to 11,132, or 25 per cent, while the capital employed in their operation grew during the same period from $41,965,747 to $232,204,553, or 441 per cent. Since the outbreak of the European war many new manufacturing industries have been initiated, and the old-established ones have strengthened their positions, so that the present-day activities must be largely in excess of what these figures show. At the time of the taking of the census 149,289 persons, or practically 10 per cent of the city's population, were employed in industrial pursuits; but it should be considered that this census was taken at a time when the country was suffering from a very serious financial and commercial crisis, so that the personnel of a great many factories were reduced by possibly 50 per cent.

An extremely abbreviated list of the industries of the Federal District would include flour mills, printing and lithographing plants, furniture factories, tanneries and leather-working establishments, shoe factories, carriage shops, cement factories, extensive soap works, box factories, and clothing and white-goods manufacturing plants. In the white-goods industry alone there are listed 104 establishments, operating with a total capital of $2,869,446 and disposing annually of goods to the value of $5,031,766. In allied lines, including corsets, haberdashery, and cotton and woolen textiles, the amount is still greater. Property values in the city represent $1,978,025,310.

OTHER IMPORTANT CITIES.

ROSARIO.

Rosario, the city second in size and importance in Argentina and counting a population of 222,592, lies about 185 miles from Buenos Aires, on the Parana River, one of the two main affluents of the La Plata system. While not the capital of the Province in which it is situated, Rosario is its commercial center. Several railroad lines from the north and west converge upon it before continuing into Buenos Aires, and in the same way the lines running out from the Federal capital to the north and northwest strike north to Rosario before branching out on their respective routes. It has therefore become a railroad center of considerable importance and many of the large companies have their railway repair shops there. The all-rail journey from the capital may be made in a fast express in less than five hours, and there is a daily river service.

Like Buenos Aires, it is situated on the west bank of the river, and its natural line of growth to the westward across the open prairie is unimpeded by mountain or stream. The port of Rosario is a notable one with respect to the completeness of its installations, it being equipped to handle rapidly the cargoes of the ocean steamers which come directly from foreign harbors to its wharves. Its chief imports are farming machinery and general merchandise, while it forms the outlet for the richest farming region in Argentina.

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The Province, Santa Fe, of which Rosario is the chief city, ranks second in national wealth among the Provinces of the Republic. The latest estimate of its landed property wealth shows a value of $747,646,164, slightly more than one-third that of the Federal capital. Live stock in the Province was valued in 1914 at $139,131,856, as compared with $666,796,044 for the Province of Buenos Aires and $137,155,183 for the Province of Cordoba. These are the three largest stock-producing Provinces.

In addition to stock raising, Santa Fe has developed several other lines of industry. Among these are sugar refining and flour milling. The Refinería Argentina at Rosario refines annually over $12,000,000 worth of sugar, and there are more than 40 flour mills operating throughout the Province. Two factories in the Province devote special attention to the manufacture of men's shirts, collars, and cuffs, operating with capital amounting to $37,907 and turning out annually products to the value of $17,408. There are seven corset-making establishments, having invested $11,676, with an annual output valued at $29,297. In white goods, two factories are operated with a total capital of $106,150 and produce $82,452 worth of goods. There are also three knit-goods factories, lightly capitalized and manufacturing goods to the value of $13,374. A single hat factory with capital of $5,944 completes the list of wearing-apparel manufactories in the Province.

The latest industrial census gives a total of 5,829 industrial establishments in the Province, operating with capital amounting to $79,720,805 and producing annually goods to the value of $82,189,092. The total number of employees in industrial activity is 42,723.

CORDOBA.

This city, capital of the Province of the same name, ranks third in the Republic in population, its inhabitants numbering 104,894. In comparison with the two centers of population already described, Cordoba is essentially an old and rather conservative city, and although it is not without some modern construction, for the most part it retains its aspect of past grandeur. It has, since the earliest times, been recognized as a center of intellectual culture and is even to-day a city of churches and schools. The second oldest university in South America, founded in 1613, is located there.

Although situated on the bank of the River Primero, Cordoba is not a port, as the Primero, in common with the other rivers of the Province, is principally of value for irrigation purposes.

The climate of the city is drier than that of the coast cities, and owing to the elevation of over 1,200 feet above sea level it is very healthful.

Lying as it does in the more or less geographical center of the Republic, the Province of Cordoba probably enjoys a more even, average prosperity than any other section. Generally speaking, the country is ideal for live-stock breeding and agriculture, while the Province takes a leading place in the production of minerals and construction materials. In live-stock production the Province occupies third place in the country. Its mountains in the north attract annually thousands of visitors, both for recreation and for the highly salubrious properties of the climate.

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The latest industrial census shows that there are 2,836 establishments operating in the Province, with a total capital of $32,124,092 and producing annually goods to the value of $31,465,272. Industries having direct relation to this report include two factories making men's shirts, collars, and cuffs, capitalized at $25,476; three shops making corsets with an annual output amounting to $15,285; eight establishments engaged in the manufacture of white goods and doing an annual business of $11,888; three knit-goods works producing $32,099 worth of articles yearly; and eight hat-making factories operating with a total capital of $33,968 and turning out a product every year worth $53,075.

TUCUMAN.

This city ranks fourth in population in the Republic and is the capital of the Province of the same name. It has a healthful site on the Sali River, at a height of about 1,450 feet above sea level. The mean annual temperature of the city of Tucuman is 67° F.

While the city is considered to be of a progressive spirit, it is as yet considerably behind the littoral metropolises in development. The city is connected with the rest of the Republic by four railway systems, the Central Cordoba, the Central North, the Northwest Argentine, and the Central Argentine. Tucuman owes its chief importance, however, to its position in the center of the sugar-growing district of the country. To this, and to the further fact that its varied topography allows a greater diversification of industries within its limits than is common to most of the other Provinces, is due the relatively dense population of the district. The Province has an average of 37.29 inhabitants per square mile, or more than twice as many as any other Province or Territory in the Republic. The total population is 332,933.

Statistics recently published by the Government leave no doubt as to the supremacy of the Province of Tucuman in the national sugar industry. Of a total of 42 refineries operating in the country in 1913, 30 were situated in that Province and were producing 230,000 metric tons of sugar out of a total annual production for the country of 277,819 tons. In 1914 this production was increased to 335,955 tons, of which Tucuman furnished 273,938 tons. Owing to unfavorable growing conditions, 1915 was a disastrous year for the sugar planters, and the total production amounted to only 149,297 tons, Tucuman's portion being 104,827 tons, nearly 70 per cent.

There are employed in the sugar industry some 8,000 persons, many of them of the Indian peon type. During the operating season the labor is hard and long hours prevail for the workmen. Working conditions are not of the best, and as a rule the peon has little to show for his industry when the end of the grinding season comes. In some of the establishments the method of payment by coupons exchangeable at the company's store is in vogue, leading to the abuses likely to be found wherever this system is employed. However, as in other sections of the Republic, when the season's harvest is satisfactory, money is more plentiful and trading more brisk.

Other activities of this Province include the growing of fruits, tobacco, and grain, and lumbering. The district is rapidly assuming importance as a supplier of fresh fruits and vegetables for the

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Buenos Aires market, and during the season a special train is run daily from the Province to Buenos Aires carrying these products to the market there. It makes the trip in about 20 hours.

Industrial activity in the Province of Tucuman employs capital to the amount of $37,818,547 and produces annually goods to the value of $48,843,486. This work kept busy 15,159 employees during the year 1914. Factories making lines related to the subject of this report are limited to three small corset-making shops, capitalized at about $6,370 and turning out annually products valued at $11,465, and two hat factories operating on a small scale.

Tucuman is often referred to locally as the "garden spot of the Republic," the climate being highly favorable to rapid vegetable growth. It is probably for this reason that the district is not a very healthful one, the mortality rate for the Province averaging 23.8 per thousand. The most prevalent sickness is a form of malarial fever known as "chucho."

LA PLATA.

La Plata has been the capital city of the Province of Buenos Aires since the date of the foundation of the former in 1882. It is situated about 35 miles farther down the River Plate than the Federal capital and has excellent port facilities, with deep water up to its docks. The latter are equipped with modern hydraulic installations for handling freight for export shipment. The city was originally laid out on broad and especially attractive lines and its population is now 90,436. Since the outbreak of the European war, La Plata has become somewhat more active commercially, owing to the location there of several large packing plants. These factories have been working under high pressure on export shipments of meat products ever since the war began, and their activities are reflected in the increased prosperity of the community. These establishments form the major portion of the industrial movement of the provincial capital, other lines being little developed. Its proximity to the Federal capital is no doubt the cause for the slow growth of La Plata, although the undeniable advantage of its location and its general attractiveness must eventually gain it a place among the important centers in the country. It is connected with the rest of the country by several lines of railways, and municipal improvements include water system, electric light and power service, and several tram lines. Its streets and avenues are carefully laid out, generously broad and well paved, and the business center has several handsome blocks.

SANTA FE.

This city is the capital of the Province of Santa Fe and is located about 95 miles up the Parana River beyond Rosario. It is 10 hours' railway journey from the Federal capital. As in the case of the cities of Rosario and Buenos Aires, Santa Fe is situated on the right bank of the river. It is a river port of some importance, but ocean-going steamers rarely arrive at so high a point up the river. The industrial development of the city is slight, and it owes its chief importance to its position as a transfer point for quebracho, grain, and meat shipments from the interior. It has electric light and street car services and maintains railway communication with the

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rest of the Republic and with Asuncion, Paraguay. Although one of the oldest cities in the country, the growth of Santa Fe has been slow and its population to-day is only 60,000.

The climate of the city does not vary greatly from that of Rosario, except that, being more to the north, it is somewhat warmer.

MENDOZA.

This city, capital of the Province of Mendoza, lies at the very base of the great western cordillera, and is an important point on the international railway connecting the two southern Republics of South America, Chile and Argentina. Besides being the seat of the provincial government, it is the largest city in Mendoza Province, and, indeed, in the whole west, having some 58,790 inhabitants. Its picturesque location at the base of the Andes, and the attractive appearance of its streets and construction, make it a pleasant place of residence or business, and the city has a reputation of being "alive" commercially. So far, its industrial development has been confined to relatively few lines, and practically all of its manufactured articles, especially for use in the wine industry, come from other parts of the Republic or are imported directly from abroad. In prosperous times the trade of Mendoza is by no means to be despised, and the fact that this section has as yet received only comparatively slight attention from the outside commercial world makes it attractive to an enterprising concern seeking an entering wedge for its goods in Argentina. The transportation problem is solved by four lines of railway, including the Argentine Great Western, which traverses the Province, and the Transandine Railway, whose tunnel through the Andes, opened in 1910, furnishes through railway connection with Chile. The Bahia Blanca and the Northwestern Railways, operating under the Buenos Aires-Pacifico company, connect Mendoza with the other Andean towns of San Luis and San Juan and the important south Atlantic port of Bahia Blanca.

The total industrial activity of the Province of Mendoza represents invested capital to the amount of $72,583,050 and an annual production worth $37,779,106. Of the total capital invested 87 per cent pertains to the wine industry, with an annual production worth $28,440,197, or 75 per cent of the industrial output of the Province. During the last year or two the Mendoza wine-making industry has been exceedingly prosperous and has increased in importance, owing to the shutting off in part of liquor supplies from Europe. At present the Mendoza district has nearly 82 per cent of the wine-producing business of the country.

In manufactures of lines directly connected with this report there may be noted five establishments making corsets, all on a small scale, employing only $5,180 capital and turning out annually goods valued at $35,666. In addition to this, and apart from the usual complement of tailoring and modiste shops, there are two important white-goods manufacturing establishments, operating with capital amounting to $180,455 and producing annually $309,958 worth of goods.

The climate of the Province of Mendoza is not particularly healthful, the mortality rate varying from 13 to 35 per thousand, although the average does not pass 20. The western part of the Province, in-

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cluding the city of Mendoza, is in the earthquake zone of the Andes, and the capital was at one time completely destroyed with heavy loss of life by one of these periodic upheavals. The region about Mendoza has been explored many times for a good vein of coal, but without success. There are quantities of coal of a certain quality, but it is thought that the beds found are too recently formed to have much commercial value. There are indications of petroleum.

CITIES WITH LESS THAN 50,000 INHABITANTS.

Besides the foregoing cities of 50,000 or more inhabitants there are several others of lesser population which are of considerable importance in the commercial or industrial life of the country. The largest of this group is Avellaneda. It has 46,277 inhabitants and is situated just outside the boundaries of the Federal capital, with which it is connected by railroad and street car lines. Its life is so closely connected with that of Buenos Aires that it is usually thought of as a continuation thereof, and it is not unlikely that it will be eventually incorporated with the capital. Its activities are mainly industrial and include several packing houses, tanneries, wool and hide warehouses, and several knit-goods factories.

The only other city in this group which will be mentioned is Bahia Blanca, a port on the Atlantic coast, having a population of 44,143. In commercial importance it ranks higher than some of the cities discussed in the first group, for it is the principal port for the south of the Republic and is rapidly becoming a trade center of the first order. It lies at the head of a natural bay, 10 hours' journey by rail to the south of Buenos Aires. Two railroads already have termini in Bahia Blanca and other lines under construction will aid in the further development of the port and of the rich grazing and agricultural lands to the west of it.

The National Government has already spent more than $10,000,000 in port improvements in Bahia Blanca, including a splendid careening dry dock at Puerto Militar, and more will be spent there in the future for the same purpose. The wonderful growth of the port's foreign commerce during the last decade seems to justify this expenditure. At present it is chiefly a port of export shipment rather than a receiving and distributing point for the interior, the ratio of exports to imports being more than six to one. Most buyers in Bahia Blanca have branch offices in Buenos Aires and do their negotiating from that city. The principal imports are manufactured goods of iron and steel, lumber, binder twine, and sheep dip. Combustible oils also form a large item. Exports consist chiefly of raw products assembled in the country back of the port and include frozen meats, grain, hides, and wool. The industrial activities of Bahia Blanca are chiefly confined to grain mills and meat-preserving plants.

There are 40 other towns having a population numbering between 10,000 and 50,000, and 283 with from 2,000 to 10,000 inhabitants. The total number of inhabitants dwelling in cities of more than 2,000 people is 4,525,500, or slightly over 57 per cent of the total population of the Republic. The movement of the country's population is indicated by the fact that in 1895, the date of the last official census prior to the one recently completed for 1914, the urban population represented only 42.8 per cent of the total.

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SELLING IN ARGENTINE MARKETS.

COMMERCIAL PRACTICES.

The wholesale or import wearing-apparel business of Argentina is not in the hands of a few traders, as are such lines as agricultural machinery and construction materials, requiring relatively large amounts of capital, which naturally fall into the hands of the few who can command the necessary funds. Importers of wearing apparel include not only wholesalers but also retailers and local manufacturers. Practically all of the large stores buy their goods directly from the manufacturers, and every small shop that can scrape together a few hundred pesos, or credit for that amount, endeavors to do the same. And it is invariably these small concerns that want the longest credits, since with the limited capital with which they operate it is necessary for them to dispose of the goods and collect for them before they can square their own accounts. To the larger firms the matter of credit is professedly a matter of indifference. They no doubt ask for time, but usually take advantage of a reasonably good discount for cash. If credit is extended to a firm at all, it is usually with interest on the account at 1 per cent a month.

It is generally admitted that the firmest basis for commercial interchange is a mutual knowledge of one another by the parties concerned. It is therefore preferable for the American merchant to be somewhat posted on the general aspects at least of the country where he proposes to operate. He should know something of its national finances, its business customs, its trade methods, its resources, and even its political aims and ideals. Such a knowledge, to give the best results, should be mutual. If the South American nations with whom we are now trading had a better understanding of our aims and ideals, political and commercial, it is safe to say that confidence would be increased many fold and commercial intercourse more free. Conceding that it is desirable for the Argentine business man to know us as we really are, it is necessary that he should be instructed in the matter. One of the best ways of affording this instruction is through the trade literature and representatives sent out. Every American manufacturer should keep in mind the fact that by his individual dealings and by those of his representative the judgment of Americans and their methods will be influenced favorably or contrarily in the minds of the Argentinians. His every act and attitude in connection with his foreign trade should be governed by this thought. His advertising literature and catalogues for distribution abroad will then be honest and conservative in tone; his salesmen and representatives will be instructed in the ways of quiet courtesy and gentility, and contracts made will be lived up to, not only in letter but in spirit. Not only will such a policy pay bigger dividends, but the attitude of fair and square dealing will gradually impress itself upon the native merchant and open confidence will replace a feeling of semidistrust.

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METHODS OF ENTERING THE MARKET.

SELLING THROUGH CORRESPONDENCE.

The practice of sending out catalogues and advertising matter broadcast over the field where it is intended to sell a specified product is considered of doubtful value, but this method is not without some points to recommend it. It is always better to have too much information on a subject than too little, and during the war many articles of trade have been "discovered" by the South American merchant, through the medium of trade literature, to be as truly North American as he had formerly considered them European. An objection to this method is that the benefit is to commerce as a whole rather than to the individual firm bearing the expense of the propaganda. To derive the maximum return from canvassing the foreign trade by correspondence, the campaign should be based on a reliable list of the firms interested in the product to be exploited. By the use of such a list the sending of knit-underwear literature to an electrical-supplies dealer will be avoided.

Advertising matter for use in Argentina is of much more value when printed in Spanish than when any other language is used. In catalogues it is preferable in stating weights, dimensions, or sizes to employ the metric system. When practicable, too, absolutely net prices should be quoted, or if it is essential to quote discounts, make them as few and as simple as possible. One of the frequent criticisms of the practice of American manufacturers with regard to advertising literature is that identical letters, with prices and discounts exactly the same, are sent to both large and small dealers, thereby depriving a wholesale house which might be disposed to handle the line of a strong price argument. Only by knowledge of the status of each firm on a mailing list can this bad practice be avoided. When prices are quoted f. o. b. it is always better to add either cars (tren), wharf (muelle), or ship (vapor), as the case may be. This may help to eliminate subsequent misunderstandings. Forms of payment usually vary with different customers and it is rarely convenient or desirable to include this information in catalogues or advertising literature.

Taking everything into consideration, it is doubtful if correspondence constitutes the most desirable method of entering the Argentine market with any line. Certainly the field can not be so well studied in this way as it can by the observations of a representative or a member of the manufacturing concern. If agents are to be appointed, estimates of their ability and fitness must be based largely on the character of the correspondence exchanged, and this may easily turn out unsatisfactorily. The long distance and consequent lapses of time between communications is another difficulty, while a resort to cabling quickly runs into expense.

TRAVELING SALESMEN.

If correspondence can be supplemented by the services of a traveling salesman, the chances of success are much increased. The firm's representative may then make periodical visits, say, once a year, to

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the foreign field and either keep in direct selling contact with the firm's customers, or appoint a competent agent to handle the business between visits.

There are in nearly every foreign market, as well as in the United States, shoals of "representatives" who have never sold an article in their lives. They are nevertheless willing to give paper guaranties that they can flood the market with the principal's product without delay. This is one class of agent that the manufacturer obviously would not desire, and the presence of a personal representative of the firm would readily prevent his employment.

Another type of agent who is not infrequently as unsatisfactory as the previous one, but with whom more discretion is required, is the large general agency firm prepared to accept any representations offered regardless of whether or not it can do justice to the line. New lines are taken on with hope of obtaining a better seller than a similar one already carried, or with a view to stifling competition that might arise from its introduction by another agent. Sales are pushed for a short time to justify the selection of the agent, but these soon languish or cease altogether, and the manufacturer finds his line irrevocably tied up for one, two, or three years, as the contract may be. There are, however, energetic and reliable agents who may be relied upon to take a line and work it for all there is in it, to the mutual benefit of the manufacturer and themselves. The proper sort of traveling representative may be expected to find such an agent and conclude a satisfactory agreement with him to handle the manufacturer's product.

Whether the traveling representative is strictly a salesman or only a visiting inspector, he should have the absolute confidence of his employers and ought to be given ample authority to act for them. Many of the representatives of European manufacturers tell their firms what to do rather than work under instructions from the home office. Any salesman traveling in South America must, needless to say, know his own lines thoroughly, and if he is acquainted with those of his European competitors it will be greatly to his advantage. In the wearing apparel line it is desirable that he have a good knowledge of Spanish, since he will probably visit many of the retail as well as the wholesale establishments. He should have authority to settle differences without constant recourse to cabling. His opinion as to credits should be accorded more importance than information from other sources, and he should be empowered to instruct the banks as to collection procedures. Arrangements and agreements made by him at the time of taking orders should be adhered to implictly in order to retain the confidence of the client. Such a position requires business ability, and anyone "happening along" with the idea of making a "tour" of South America will hardly be the man to fill it.

EXPORT COMMISSION HOUSES.

The method of selling goods in foreign markets through a commission house in the United States is now generally known, and the advantages and disadvantages of such an arrangement have been frequently discussed in texts on exporting. It is open to the same abuse as the system of working through a foreign agent, viz, the acceptance of

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too many lines to handle all profitably. If this plan is to be adopted, as much care should be used in the selection of a commission agent as in choosing a foreign resident agent. Another objection to this method is that whatever benefit may grow out of consistent furnishing of good merchandise, or according favorable terms generally, accrues to the agent. In other words, it is the agent who is in direct contact with the client and who gains the latter's good will. On the other hand, the merchant is relieved from most of the details of a true export business, the requirements by this system being little more than for ordinary domestic trade. He merely delivers the merchandise at the point of embarkation and receives his money for the consignment, the commission agent assuming all responsibility for shipment, insurance, exchange, credits, collections, etc.

BRANCH OFFICES.

The opening of a branch office in a foreign market presupposes a prior investigation of the field in a most thorough manner by a trusted representative. First, it must be determined whether or not the market for the merchant's particular product is sufficiently large to warrant the step, since the expenses to be incurred by this method are greater than by any other. Again, if the firm is already represented in the market by an agent, the agency will, of course, have to be withdrawn, and this may arouse opposition that should be considered. No agent cares to work several years building up a demand for a certain line and then have his principals step in and take over the business and reap the fruits of his labors.

A manufacturer should not open a branch or selling office abroad unless he is fairly convinced that the business to be obtained will support it. To come in and later be forced to withdraw on account of operating losses will mean a loss of prestige to the firm if it continues to do business in the market by another method. To avoid this, some large houses send down a representative who opens an office under his own name. If the venture results successfully, the home firm eventually takes over the business under its own name. Otherwise, the representative closes out and goes home, and no one is ever aware of the real connection.

One of the advantages of a branch office is that it frequently permits the carrying of stocks in the market for supplying the trade directly. With an organization on the ground, the manufacturer may more satisfactorily control policies, propaganda, and various other details that require constant attention. The system insures the presence of some one in the market who will take a direct, live interest in receiving and distributing the merchandise, and who can smooth away small questions constantly arising between the manufacturer and the local merchant. Advantage may also be taken of the local exchange market, which is an item that may be figured in dollars and cents. Attention to this detail alone returns profits of thousands of dollars to many firms in the course of a year, and great financial ability is not requisite to the operations involved.

All things considered, the best means of importing wearing apparel into Argentina from North America is through a local agent or resident representative, supplemented in his work by periodical

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visits from one of the manufacturer's trusted salesmen. In working for sales in any South American market patience is a primary virtue, and until the exporting merchant shall have gained a good share of experience he must not expect too much in the way of cash earnings. All told, the market in Argentina for wearing apparel will probably foot up a smaller total value in a year's business than would that of the single city of New York in a similar time.

PACKING AND SHIPPING.

Packing will be covered in detail in connection with the discussion of each specific line, so that only general references need to be made here. Two things should be considered in packing wearing apparel for shipment to Argentina, viz, the time required for a shipment to reach its destination and the effect of the weight and dimensions of the packages on the customhouse charges.

After being put on board the freight steamer it is usually a matter of 20 to 25 days before the goods arrive at Buenos Aires. Wearing apparel is, relatively speaking, a commodity light in weight, and as there is no transshipment en route and merchandise upon its arrival at the Argentine ports is generally swung up out of the hold of the ship and into the customs depository in a single operation, extra heavy or strong exterior packing is not essential. This is in direct contrast to instructions for shipments to west coast ports, where landing conditions are still in a rather primitive stage and cargo generally receives much rougher treatment. However, as the cases will be subjected for three or four weeks to the drying effects of the heat from the ship's furnaces and a sojourn of a week to 10 days in the Tropic Zone, they should be made of well-seasoned lumber. If "green" lumber is used it is likely to dry out sufficiently to draw the nails, leaving the cases in a flimsy state and the contents liable to unlawful extraction. In any event it is advisable to secure the planking with a couple of turns of iron strapping. If the manufacturer thinks that the warm, humid climate of the Tropics will adversely affect his goods in transit, he may find it desirable to line the interior of his packing cases with a light-weight felt, heavy paper, or even tin or zinc. This is a not uncommon practice on the part of European exporters of silk and similar goods. In the United States manufacturers are to-day shipping domestic orders in cardboard boxes, and very successfully too, yet no intelligent exporter would dream of sending goods abroad so packed, except possibly where delivery may be made advantageously by parcel post.

PACKING WITH RELATION TO CUSTOMS TARIFF.

The second important consideration which should be kept in mind by the exporter when packing wearing apparel for Argentina is the customs tariff of that country. A great many of the articles included in the term "wearing apparel" are subject to customs duties based on the legal weight of the merchandise; a few pay on gross weight, including the exterior packing case, while some goods are rated by number. Generally speaking, therefore, the exporter should strive to have the material used for the immediate wrappings of his mer-

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chandise as light as possible. Paper-wrapped bundles are most commonly used for packing underwear, stockings, ties, gloves, etc., and are always preferable to cardboard boxes.

Usually the merchant ordering goods will know in just what manner they may most advantageously be packed, marked, and shipped, and special attention should be accorded his instructions relative to these points. If an American manufacturer opens a branch office in Argentina, one of the first duties of the local manager should be to acquire as much information as possible about the tariff and its application to his particular lines. This may be done by a little judicious cultivation of the agent who is awarded the firm's dispatching business and who is generally glad to show his interest by affording this information. Adequate and permanent packing and shipping instructions may then be arranged with the home office. One American firm which formerly suffered heavily from customs fines on account of errors in the details of shipping finally made a study of this feature of the business, and with the aid of its "despachante" worked out a system of marks and declarations, together with packing instructions, which proved so practical that since that time, nearly five years ago, a customs fine has been almost unknown.

MARKING OF PACKAGES.

Cases should bear the consignee's mark or brand. Generally the importer will have a mark or system of marks of his own, but if not, any suitable design may be used. Initials of the importer inside a circle or rectangle is a common form of marking. Such marks, together with the net and gross weights in pounds and kilos, the size of the case, and the cubic contents of the same, should appear on two or more adjacent sides of the case. If the shipment comprises more than a single box, a serial number should be given each one. All figures and letters should preferably be stenciled and at least 2 inches in height. All weights and measurements should be carefully verified as to their accuracy, since errors may lead to fines or at least delay and investigation, as such mistakes are invariably considered attempts to defraud the Government. Methods of marking cases may be as complete and as complex as the parties to the deal desire. Certain firms use a sort of code by which the contents of each box is known to the importer as soon as he sees the marks.

SHIPPING.

The embarking of the merchandise is an important detail in the export business. If the manufacturer is located in one of the ports from which vessels sail direct to Argentina, he can educate his organization to handle his own shipments. The manufacturer away from such ports, however, should place his consignments in the hands of some responsible forwarding agent, who will do all the necessary work in connection with the proper embarkation of the goods. There will be a fee for this, which should be paid by the manufacturer, if the terms are f. o. b. steamer or c. i. f. Argentina; if otherwise, by the consignee.

Simultaneous with or before the shipping of the merchandise, should be forwarded all documents that the importer will need in

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satisfactorily passing the consignment into the customs depository for examination. The customs regulations require the importer to enter his goods within eight days after the arrival of the vessel, or pay a fine of 2 per cent of the value of the shipment. The necessity, therefore, of sending the documents with or prior to the embarkation of the shipment is obvious.

DOCUMENTS TO ACCOMPANY SHIPMENTS.

Argentina does not require consular invoices for import shipments. Bills of lading are required and should be legalized before an Argentine consular official. There must also be a certificate of origin of the goods, which is usually attached to the bill of lading. Both these documents should be executed in triplicate. The main difference between the combined bill of lading and certificate of origin and the usual consular invoice is that the former does not carry the values of the merchandise. This is an important point and one which the American exporter should not overlook, especially in these times of abnormal values on merchandise, when the ordinary or even cheap article, if judged by the price, may be classified by the Argentine customs authorities as "fine. Such classification will mean the imposition of a higher rate of duty and will result in dissatisfaction on the part of the Argentine importing firm. Bills of lading should be executed without including the value of the merchandise, as is habitually done by experienced European shippers.

Documents for customs requirements are similar to the forms in the United States. Only one is necessary to the importer who wants the goods for immediate consumption. If he wishes to store the goods in the customs warehouse, two documents are required, a warehouse entry to store them and a warehouse withdrawal when he is ready to resume possession and pay the duties.

For goods of different classes separate entry must be made. Different goods are assigned to different appraisers, except when articles of various classes are contained in the same package. All packages received on the same bill of lading should be declared at the same time, and if this is not done an entire shipment may be held up because a single package is missing somewhere in the great warehouse. To overcome this difficulty it has been recommended that some kind of a large distinguishing mark be placed on two sides of a case for easy identification.

TARIFF RATES AND REGULATIONS.

Customs import duties of Argentina run about 12 to 17 per cent higher than they do in the United States on lines included in the term "wearing apparel," which comprises manufactures of textiles in general. In Argentina duties on articles of this nature are usually based on the legal weight. This includes the weight of the merchandise, plus that of any paper or cardboard wrappings, twine, etc., but not the outer wooden packing case or any lining it may have. Where goods pay duties on the legal weight, cards, advertising literature, or other extraneous matter should never be placed in the same parcel with the goods. If they are to be shipped in the same case, they

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should form a separate parcel and a statement of their presence and weight included on the bill of lading along with the other contents of the case. When goods dutiable on legal weight are shipped loose in the outer packing case without any immediate packing, the net weight is increased 10 per cent in computing the duty.

The general rate of duty on imports into Argentina is 25 per cent ad valorem. This level has been maintained for a long period, but at present there are two supplementary taxes amounting to an additional 7 per cent. In estimating ad valorem duties, official arbitrary valuations are placed on many of the articles instead of using the invoice value. This accounts for the fact that statistics of imports into Argentina from a given country formerly showed a higher value than the exports from the country to Argentina indicated. For the three years immediately preceding the European war this excess amounted to approximately 8, 10, and 4 per cent, respectively, but during the past two years, with the greatly inflated values on all goods, the official valuations have fallen below the actual invoice prices.

Heretofore export duties have been of negligible importance in Argentina's customs receipts, amounting to but a few thousand dollars annually. The purpose of those in force was to discourage shipment abroad of articles needed for home consumption. In January, 1918, however, a law was passed imposing duties on all articles exported. For the more important animal and vegetable products these duties are at the rate of 15 per cent and 12 per cent, respectively, based on the excess of the current price over the normal prices prevailing before the war. Articles not specially mentioned are dutiable at 2 per cent ad valorem.

Besides the regular duties and their surtaxes there are various other charges such as statistical and stamp taxes, warehouse and customs fees, and charges for cranage, stevedoring, and lighterage.

The articles entering Argentina free of duty are few in number. Until recently they numbered only 52 items, but the Government's need for revenue resulted in the elimination of more than half. In the southern part of the country all articles are admitted free of duty by way of encouragement in the settling and development of the great prairies south of the forty-second degree of latitude. In this section there is a good chance of competing with home industries in every line, although the market is naturally a limited one. For example, an American representative in Buenos Aires recently placed an order in this southern territory for a number of ready-made American sack suits, a transaction which would have been difficult or impossible in another part of the country. Owing to the infrequent communication between this part of the country and the more settled portions, there is little chance of the free goods finding their way into competition with the dutiable articles entering through the usual channels.

FREIGHT RATES.

Depending upon the bulk of the article being shipped, freight may have little or great effect on the selling price in the Argentine market. On this item, too, may depend the chance of competition with the domestic product. In normal times the freight rates from the

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United States to Argentina on wearing apparel is in the neighborhood of 40 cents a cubic foot. At this time rates are about $2.50 per cubic foot, which makes the importation of bulky goods extremely difficult, especially if there is any development of the industry in the country. On the other hand, freight rates from Europe continue to be almost normal, due to the fact that boats arriving for supplies are lightly loaded and not infrequently in ballast. This makes it increasingly difficult for the American manufacturer to compete for business where it is possible for a European competitor to serve the merchandise.

MAIL FACILITIES.

In normal times there is regular mail service between the United States and Argentina every two weeks in both directions, besides an occasional freight-boat service. Mail facilities are at present somewhat interrupted. Duplicate copies of correspondence should invariably be sent when addressing communications to Argentina.

The introduction of dutiable merchandise by ordinary mail is not permitted. This is to prevent smuggling, although the prohibition applies equally when the appearance of the package obviously indicates that it contains merchandise. A fine varying from 5 per cent up to the entire value of the goods is imposed for an attempted violation of this regulation.

PARCEL POST.

In some lines of wearing apparel an order of considerable value does not make a package of sufficient size to justify a case shipment by freight, and many orders of this class are shipped by parcel post. The present parcel-post convention between the United States and Argentina provides for delivery in Argentina at a cost not to exceed 30 cents for each package, irrespective of its weight. Besides this there are other charges for stamps, examinations, etc. Moreover, according to Argentine law, a business man may not reclaim any parcel-post package of a commercial nature, but must employ a customhouse "despachante" to do this for him. Under the most advantageous arrangement with such an agent, the cost of obtaining a parcel-post package from the local authorities will average between $1.50 and $2. This of course does not include customs duties that may be assessed. At the present time there is an additional duty of 25 per cent ad valorem on most goods coming in by any other method than a freight shipment; that is, an article which would ordinarily have to pay a duty charge of $4, if received through parcel post, would be assessed $4 plus 25 per cent of its value.

American packing of parcel-post shipments is inferior to that of the exporters from Europe. An ordinary paper bundle which can be shipped anywhere in the United States is not satisfactory for export delivery. Merchandise sent from Europe by parcel post is usually wrapped in paper and then sewn up in burlap and sealed. Unfortunately the United States regulations do not permit of sealing parcel-post packages. This is a detriment to the country's export commerce, as unsealed parcels are much more easily opened and their contents lost or stolen in transit.

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Owing to various entrance charges based on the number of packages, American merchants should always remember to use as few parcels as possible when shipping by parcel post. In other words, utilize the limit of the 11-pound allowance for each package.

MARINE INSURANCE.

All export shipments should be insured as a protection to the manufacturer as well as to the importer. While the commercial law decreeing that goods belong to the customer when they are delivered by the seller (on board the steamer, for example, when terms are f. o. b. steamer) is accepted in Argentina, at the same time there are likely to be disagreements and dissatisfaction in adjusting such a matter when the merchandise is not insured. Insurance against robbery is important in most of the South American countries, the percentage of cases broken into and a portion of their contents stolen being remarkable.

When obtaining an insurance policy, care should be taken to see that the name of the Argentine representative of the insurance company appears somewhere on the same. Owing to the provision of the Argentine customs law which requires entries of goods to be made within eight days of the arrival of the vessel, adjustments of insurance for damages, etc., frequently have to be made in a hurry, and when the local agent of the insuring company is not known a cable of inquiry to the United States may be necessary.

It has been alleged that European insurance companies are more liberal than American ones in the terms of their marine policies. This is not true, as European companies issue their policies with a special paragraph known as the "River Plate ten days' clause," which reads: "The risk under this policy shall cease upon arrival at any shed (transit or otherwise), store, customhouse, or warehouse, or upon the expiry of 10 days subsequent to landing, whichever may first occur." In other words, they specify that their marine policy shall only cover risks up to the entrance of the goods into the warehouse, customhouse, or freight shed, or, if allowed to stand outside on the dock, 10 days is the limit. Policies of American companies have been seen covering risk from the factory to the client's private depositories, and these were so-called "marine" policies.

UNLOADING AND INTERIOR TRANSPORT.

Argentina has good reason to be proud of her port improvements and interior transportation systems. Few countries have more complete facilities for handling shipments from abroad. The difficulties in getting merchandise from ship to shore in the open roads of the west coast countries of South America are generally known, and in consignments to those ports the merchant is always confronted with the bugbear of inadequate packing. Only in North America or Europe are the port facilities of Argentina equaled or excelled. The three leading ports, Buenos Aires, Rosario, and Bahia Blanca, are fully equipped with basins, docks, cranes, etc., for handling shipments from any part of the world. Freighters drawing up to 30 feet of water may come alongside the docks and have their

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cargoes swung out of the holds and onto the customs warehouse platforms in a single operation. Practically no lightering is required and goods are handled with a care and dispatch that is admirable.

RAILWAY FACILITIES.

Adequate railway service supplements these port improvements and, in fact, few countries are better served in this respect than Argentina. Both private and State lines traverse the Republic in every direction and to the limits of its territory. Since August, 1857, when the first line of railroad was inaugurated in the country, the total mileage has increased from 10 kilometers to 33,483, with capital amounting to $1,168,108,694 and annual receipts of $137,255,167. Ownership of railroads is largely in private hands, although there are several State lines. The latter are intended to serve certain districts neglected by private enterprise as not likely to be profitable in the near future. The State service gives the inhabitants of these sections transportation facilities to aid them in the development of their land and industries. While it is hoped that the railroads will some time become self-supporting, they are not operated with this motive at the present time. They have never shown any earnings, although privately owned and operated lines have averaged about 4½ per cent, some earning as high as 8.85 per cent.

Argentine railroads have reached their greatest development in the Provinces of Buenos Aires and Santa Fe, where they form a perfect network of communication. Other lines connect the great port of Buenos Aires with Chile, Paraguay, and southern Brazil, while a projected line has been completed to the Bolivian frontier, lacking only a short section to connect with the Oruro-La Paz line at Tupiza. The Argentine port thus assumes considerable importance as a distribution point for thousands of tons of merchandise annually.

TRANSSHIPMENT IN BOND.

Transportation of goods under customs control is much more important in Argentina than in any other South American country, owing to the greater development of its railroads. Merchandise may be so transshipped without paying duties thereon. Warehousing, statistical, and other charges may have to be paid, but the policy of the Government is to do all it can to foster this transfer business. There are special warehouse regulations covering the transport of goods under customs control, and goods may be stored in the customs warehouses for three months free of charge.

For transshipment or storage in customs warehouse pending ultimate delivery by maritime service, a declaration is required in triplicate showing marks, numbers, nature of packages, and character of contents, but it is not necessary to present a consular invoice.

For rail transfer shipments, goods are usually warehoused first and later entered for shipment in transit. The necessary document for this operation must be presented in triplicate, and certain small charges other than duty must be paid before the goods are turned over to the railroad. If the goods are shipped with the final desti-

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nation showing on the bill of lading they may be forwarded without the presentation of a warehouse entry. The loading of the goods is done in the presence of a customhouse employee and a representative of the railroad company, both of whom check the goods against the transit entry. A special waybill is made in triplicate, together with an international permit, and the car, under customs seal, may then be sent to the frontier in charge of the railway company. The latter is held liable for any difficulty subsequently arising, until a copy of the permit, certified by the foreign customhouse officer, has been returned to the port of transshipment. The foregoing regulations apply chiefly to merchandise transshipped over the Andes to Chile. Goods may also be imported into Argentina through Chile in much the same manner as above described for shipments going in the other direction.

CREDITS AND CREDIT TERMS.

The American manufacturer studying foreign fields with a view to introducing his product should give serious consideration to the matter of credits. The standard of commercial integrity in Argentina compares favorably with that in the United States. Business men of Argentina are little different from those at home; there are the unreliable and the responsible, and the proportion of the former to the latter is not greater than among merchants of the United States. The credit of a local firm should, of course, be investigated before entering into extensive business negotiations, and subsequent arrangements could be based on the information obtained. Credit information is more easily available now than it was formerly. The reporting agency of R. G. Dun & Co. has a branch in Buenos Aires, and there are two American banks that have commercial departments at the service of their clients. These are the National City Bank of New York and the First National Bank of Boston. Merchants' acceptances are discountable at the American banks. Direct sales to retail dealers may be handled safely and satisfactorily through either of these banks.

Since the European war started, so much buying has been done in the United States by Argentine importers that most of them are now able to give American references. In any event, good houses are prepared to offer European references which may be verified by the American exporter. With a properly handled credit system there is no reason why an American manufacturer should sustain greater losses in Argentina from bad accounts than he does at home.

CUSTOMARY TERMS AND QUOTATIONS.

The terms offered to Argentine importers by European houses have in the past ranged from cash at point of shipment to a year's open account. Ninety or a hundred and twenty days date were the most common conditions of sale in Argentina prior to the war, although on a line such as agricultural machinery the Germans have extended as much as a year and a half in order to get business. It is believed that it would be advisable to allow more generous terms to the Argentine merchants than has been customary with

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the average American manufacturer in the past. Otherwise, and other things being equal, they are almost certain to follow the line of least resistance and do their trading in Europe, where the exporters are disposed to concede more satisfactory terms.

By no means all the Argentine importers are seeking or even desire long credits. The stronger houses are generally ready to take advantage of a discount for prompt settlement. What they do object to, however, is the condition of cash in New York before the shipment of the goods, or cash against documents in Buenos Aires before they are permitted to inspect the merchandise. This form of payment is objected to because the importer frequently feels called upon to honor his payments even though the goods are not up to sample. He has no recourse in the event that the manufacturer has not complied with his part of the contract. For this reason certain of the big importers have refused to accept drafts until the goods are in their possession. This is arranged by having the shipping documents sent directly to the Argentine merchant and the draft forwarded to the local bank in Buenos Aires for signature after the merchandise has been found to be correct.

Argentine merchants, in common with most world-trading firms, would always like to buy on c. i. f. Argentina terms. In normal times it would also be equally to the advantage of the American manufacturer to quote his prices on that basis. European houses have not made a general practice of doing so, and in this respect they are not in advance of the United States concerns. At the present time, for obvious reasons, it is impracticable to quote c. i. f. prices. On the other hand, manufacturers in America should remember that the Argentine merchant finds it very difficult to calculate accurately on interior freights and other charges at the shipping port. Wherever possible, therefore, f. o. b. steamer quotations should be given.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Argentina has adopted the metric system of weights and measures. Sizes of collars, shirts, shoes, etc., are always figured in centimeters, and the ultimate consumer rarely knows of any other way of requesting his size. Roughly, there are 2½ centimeters in 1 inch, 1 centimeter measuring 0.3937 inch. A kilo of weight corresponds to 2.2046 pounds avoirdupois.

One of the secrets of the success of European manufacturers in trading in the Argentine market has been their willingness to execute orders in small lots to suit the convenience of the customer. For economic reasons the American manufacturer has been forced to produce his goods in certain quantities and to dispose of them on a similar basis. This practice arouses antagonism in the Argentine merchant's mind, as he has been accustomed in some lines to ordering as few as one-twelfth dozen of an article and having it made, shipped, and delivered almost on his own terms. In the face of such treatment, the American representative submitting samples on the condition that the goods be ordered in 10-dozen lots, 1 dozen to a size, etc., is obviously at a disadvantage.

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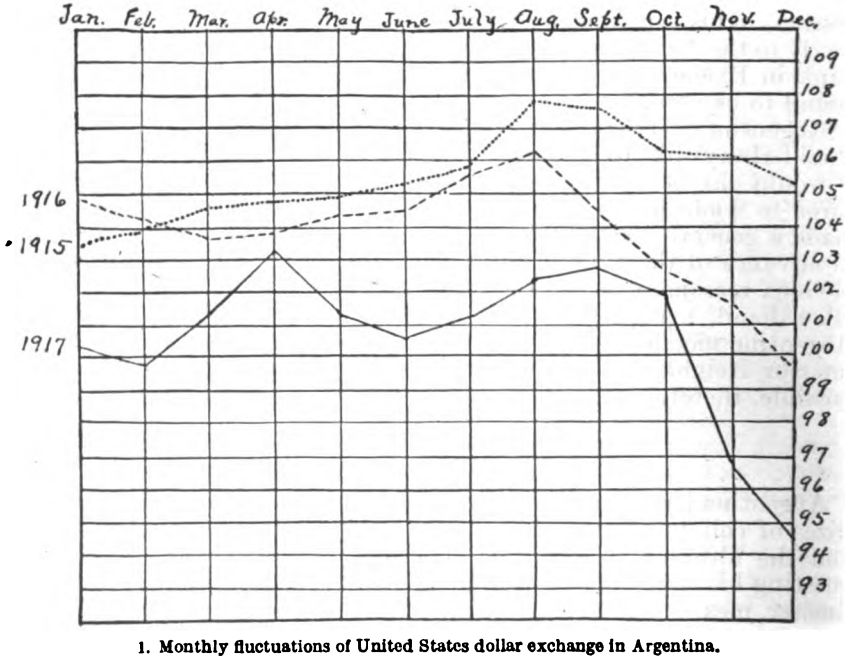
CURRENCY AND EXCHANGE.

The currency of Argentina is on a gold basis, the par value of the peso being $0.965 in United States currency. That is, the American dollar is normally worth 103.63 Argentine gold centavos. For commercial convenience paper pesos have been issued, and these, together with the smaller nickel coins, provide the currency for general circulation. The value of the paper peso has been fixed by the Argentine Government at $0.44 Argentine gold, or $0.4246 United States currency. There are 2.2727 paper pesos to the Argentine gold peso, or 2.355 to the American dollar. Customs duties and other Government fees are payable in Argentine gold or its equivalent in paper pesos.

The foregoing values represent the normal values of Argentine currency; its actual worth varies slightly in the foreign markets of



1. Monthly fluctuations of United States dollar exchange in Argentina.

the world. For example, owing to heavy exports of wool and other raw products of the country and the greatly reduced imports entering the market, American dollar exchange for the past year has been constantly at a discount, varying in amount from 1 to 6 per cent. In November, 1917, an American dollar would purchase in the open market only about 97 cents of Argentine gold currency, instead of the 103.63 cents that it would normally buy. The advantage of this condition is on the side of the Argentine merchant, who is thus enabled to settle his American acounts at much less cost in local currency than he could ordinarily. A table and chart showing the monthly fluctuations of American dollar exchange in Argentina are given. The rates shown represent average monthly cable quotations on New York for the years 1915, 1916, and 1917. Sight or time exchange is, of course, a fraction lower than the cable rate. The highest

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2. CENTRAL STORE OF GATH & CHAVES, BUENOS AIRES. THE FIRM OPERATES A CHAIN OF STORES IN ARGENTINA.

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3. HARRODS, BUENOS AIRES, ONE OF THE LEADING RETAIL STORES IN ARGENTINA HANDLING WEARING APPAREL AND ALLIED LINES.

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average monthly rate for the period recorded was in August of 1915, with 107.83, while the lowest point was in December, 1917, with 94.56. During the last-mentioned month the rate dropped as low as 93 on several days.

Months.	1915	1916	1917
January	$103.44	$104.90	$100.39
February	103.84	104.23	99.98
March	101.54	103.74	101.35
April	104.68	103.87	103.18
May	104.75	104.30	101.39
June	105.11	104.42	100.63
July	105.82	105.57	101.16
August	107.83	106.17	102.35
September	107.61	104.38	102.71
October	106.15	102.67	100.87
November	106.01	101.70	96.68
December	105.32	99.88	94.56

TRADE-MARKS.

In the United States special brands on wearing apparel are very common, but it is the only country in the world where such marking has been successfully worked out. Much has been said about the natives of South America buying their supplies by marks, but this does not apply to the great trade centers of Argentina. It is doubtless true in the outlying districts, inhabited mostly by poor and ignorant Indians or half-breeds who have no other way of judging the quality of an article, but the city dweller is more or less indifferent to brands. The dealers themselves are opposed to the special mark, because they want their own brand on the goods, and frequently, if they can not have the merchandise made up with their mark, they will sew it on themselves when the goods come to hand. For this reason it is difficult to introduce a new manufacturer's brand. It can, however, be done, as witness the success of such articles as the Stetson hat, the President suspender, the Mey (German) collar, and Rumpf (Swiss) underwear. For the most part, the European manufacturers have met the desires of the trade in this respect and will put a special brand of the customer's own selection on each article, regardless of the size of the order. In this way a single line from the same factory may be in a great number of stores in the city, but the consumer thinks it is in one only.

WHOLESALE SELLING METHODS.

As previously stated, the importation of wearing apparel is not controlled by a small group of business men. There are, however, certain wholesale importers of leading importance. These firms have ample storage facilities located near the customs warehouses, and in addition frequently have rooms for displaying samples or even carrying limited stocks. Traveling representatives of the firms are kept on the road in the Provinces at all times, calling on old customers, visiting prospective clients, submtting samples, etc. By this method the majority of the consignments to the Provinces are sold. Orders are also taken when buyers from the country come into the city and visit the display rooms of the wholesalers. Sometimes

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only samples are shown, and as soon as an order of satisfactory proportions is obtained it is forwarded to the manufacturer abroad for making up. Generally, however, the larger houses rely on their own judgment as to the probable demand for a garment and a good-sized order is given the manufacturer's representative. While the goods are being made up the wholesale firm's salesmen are out with samples canvassing the trade, and perhaps by the time the shipment arrives in Buenos Aires it will only be necessary for the firm's dispatching agent to redistribute the various packages intact to purchasers in the interior.

Most of the large retail stores in Buenos Aires obtain their supplies from the manufacturer without the intervention of the wholesaler. Native manufacturing concerns sell their product by much the same system. They maintain a corps of salesmen, but the latter in this case visit the shops and department stores of the Federal capital and other large ports, since they are competing with the foreign manufacturer. The Argentine manufacturer of importance generally has his factory on the outskirts of the city, while his sample display rooms will be located in the center alongside the wholesale firm's establishment. Wholesale firms handling wearing apparel include many nationalities besides the native Argentinian.

Spanish and Italian concerns are most numerous among the houses doing a strictly wholesale business. In one section of the city are the display and stock rooms of a considerable number of Turks and Hindus, but they are not generally highly regarded and handle mostly the cheaper lines. French, English, and German houses account for most of the remainder. Many of the wholesale firms have branch offices in the larger cities of the interior, which serve as headquarters for the salesmen working the surrounding district and where duplicate lines of samples are displayed.

RETAIL DISTRIBUTION OF WEARING APPAREL.

Retailing methods include dry goods stores, men's furnishing shops, general merchandise stores, and department stores. There are also several establishments doing a mail-order business, their lines being mainly confined to women's wearing apparel.

GATH & CHAVES.

There are in Buenos Aires seven or eight establishments which may properly be considered department stores. The most important organization is known as the South American Stores of Gath & Chaves (Ltd.). It is a limited corporation formed in London in 1912 with a capital of £1,712,500 ($8,333,900), partly English and partly French. The principal offices are in London, but the firm has buying offices or agents in Paris, New York, and other important cities. The New York agents of this firm are Warner Bros. Co.

Aside from several splendid stores in Buenos Aires, Gath & Chaves operate branches in Rosario, Bahia Blanca, La Plata, Cordoba, Parana, Mercedes, Mendoza, and Tucuman. Stores are also maintained by this company in Chile, and it is the intention of the managers to open in Brazil at an early date. All of the stores will not be discussed in detail, but enough description of the Buenos Aires estab-

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lishments will be given to afford an idea of the scale on which the company operates.

The central store is situated on the corner of Florida and Cangallo Streets, occupying nearly half a block on the former, the busiest retail street in the city. The front of the store on the street floor is glass inclosed and utilized for window displays. The company maintains a highly trained window trimming staff, and the appearance of its windows is always fresh and tasteful. On certain occasions, as spring openings or Easter week, special displays are made and excellent and novel effects are obtained. Upon entering the store, the customer, if he appears to be a stranger, is approached by one of the several floor directors and courteously asked in what way the house can serve him. Upon his indicating the line in which he is interested, the floor walker personally conducts him to the proper section, or to the elevator, should the article be on another floor. The edifice consists of eight stories and is served by five commodious elevators. Leading from the ground floor to the story above is a broad double stairway of generous proportions. The space above is open to the seventh floor and the intervening floors are in the form of galleries around this central shaft.

The ground floor is devoted to two main lines, men's haberdashery and toilet articles in general. On the second floor are found toys and games and wearing apparel for children. The third floor carries sporting goods, men's clothing, etc., while other lines, including pianos and musical instruments, glass and china ware, carpets and house furnishings, wall papers, linoleums, plumbing and sanitary fittings, trunks, leather goods, etc., are to be found on the several floors above. On the sixth and seventh floors are the administration offices. At the top of the main building is the tea and refreshment parlor, with an outside roof garden.

Each department of the store is in charge of a specialist in the particular line to which it is devoted. Besides the native Argentinians, the firm employs as chiefs of departments Belgians, Frenchmen, Englishmen, and Italians. Customers are attended directly by well-trained women and men clerks, and courtesy is one of the first requirements demanded of an employee. Until recently the service has been almost entirely personal, but there is now in the process of installation a system of mail chutes, endless conveyors to the basement, and pneumatic change tubes. These improvements will probably make for a gradual speeding up of the store's administration. They will also be a novelty, as no other store in Buenos Aires now possesses any of these features. The system being installed is a North American one, and the material is furnished by a well-known Boston firm.

There are three other stores belonging to the Gath & Chaves group in Buenos Aires. One of these, occupying six floors of a building fronting on three streets, about a square from the main store, is devoted entirely to women's clothing. At 5 o'clock on certain afternoons there is a living-model display of new tailored effects and millinery. Hundreds of shoppers attend this show. A tea room especially for ladies is a feature of this branch of the store.

Another large and important unit of the group is the grocery and provision store on a second corner of Florida and Cangallo Streets. It occupies three stories and is well arranged. A great variety of

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bulk and package goods are offered here, much of the merchandise being imported. A modern sanitary kitchen which prepares hot meals to take home, or a complete menu for a formal dinner, is a feature of the department.

The Gath & Chaves stores cater to the middle and high-grade trade and the cheapest lines are not stocked. The stores are popular with the public generally, and the firm is doing a constantly increasing business. Most of the stock is imported, but a large and completely equipped factory, employing 500 hands, maintains the supplies of many of the lines of wearing apparel, especially in women's wear. This factory is situated in Buenos Aires, and is owned and operated by the firm.

A special propaganda department attends to the advertising of the company. Periodical sales and semiannual catalogues of a very complete character help to keep trade brisk. Special catalogues are gotten out monthly for the grocery and provision department, and at Christmas and other holidays pamphlets and special catalogues are sent out.[1]

Under the able management of Mr. Pablo Della Valle, president of the board of administrators, the policy of the concern has been one of progressiveness, and in consequence the stores are constantly requiring more ample quarters for their operations. Plans for extensive improvements are now under consideration.

HARRODS, BUENOS AIRES.

Harrods, Buenos Aires (Ltd.), is one of the largest establishments in Argentina operating in wearing apparel and allied lines. The company was formed in London in 1913 with a capital amounting to £1,512,000. There are 600,000 cumulative preferred shares of £1 each, at 6½ per cent; 900,000 10-per cent ordinary shares of £1 each, and 240,000 deferred shares of 1 shilling each.

Harrods operates but one store in Argentina. It is situated at Calles Florida and Paraguay, in a six-story building occupying practically an entire block. The store is appointed and stocked for catering to the most exclusive trade. Much of its stock is imported from Europe, mostly from England and France, but buyers are maintained in the United States. In addition, the firm, in common with most of the other large department stores in Argentina, operates a separate factory on its own account, where all kinds of white goods and wearing apparel are manufactured. The ground floor of the store is given over to men's wear, perfumery and toilet articles, and piece goods of silk, cotton, linen, and other materials. Other floors are devoted to women's gowns and other ready-made wearing apparel, children's wear, a shoe department, millinery, boys' and youths' ready-made clothing, etc.

The third story contains the tea and refreshment salon. It is easily the finest in Buenos Aires and no other approaches it in popularity. Ices and cold drinks of a nonalcoholic nature are served, as well as tea, and an American soda fountain is a pleasing feature.

[1] Fifteen catalogues, issued by department and other retail stores in Buenos Aires, were received in connection with this report and are on file in the Bureau's district office in New York City.

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At noon, a regular restaurant lunch is served at a nominal price. During the afternoon an orchestra renders classical and popular selections.

Other features of Harrods include a handsomely appointed beauty parlor for women, finished in marble at a cost of about $50,000; a rest and writing room, also for women; a men's lounge and barber shop, etc. A special section is arranged for the display of imported models of tailored gowns and evening dresses.

On the top floor is a section of the workshops, mostly for alterations and pressing. About 300 employees work there. A small shop for printing the daily menu and other literature is also on this floor.

In all, there are about 2,000 employees, including those working in the separate factory. The general sales system in vogue is somewhat different from those to which Americans are accustomed. In Harrods the keynote of the sales service is careful and polite attention to the customer at all times. The sales force is well trained and efficient in caring for the comfort and demands of the store's patrons. Service is nearly always personal. Upon purchasing an article the customer is politely requested to follow the clerk to the cashier's desk, where the amount of the bill is paid and the client conducted to the counter where he will receive his parcel. Near the cashier's desk on the lower floor is a branch of the Argentine Government post office, a feature unique in department stores in Buenos Aires.

Working conditions of the employees of the store compare favorably with general conditions prevailing in Argentine industrial and merchandising establishments. Wages are not high, but seem to be satisfactory. Members of the sales force receive a fixed salary, varying from 50 to 100 pesos m/n ($21.20 to $42.40) per month, and in addition commissions on total sales are given. In some departments where the movement is large salesmen or salesgirls may earn 300 or 400 pesos a month. Office employees are generally better paid than is customary in the United States; they receive from $44 to $110 a month. They do not participate in the profits, but receive a moderate bonus each year after stock taking.

The employees seem to be the subject of the firm's interest, even after their working hours. Most of the sales force are women, men being employed in the men's furnishings department, the piece-goods section, the dining room, management, etc. All salesgirls dress in black. Working hours are from 8 in the morning until 7.30 o'clock in the afternoon, with 2 hours out at noon for lunch. A social and athletic club for the diversion of the employees has recently been encouraged and promoted by the administration, and a splendid clubhouse built for its accommodation. There is also a mutual insurance fund against sickness and death, supported by the employees themselves.

OTHER LARGE RETAIL STORES.

The following five concerns, located in Buenos Aires, may also be considered department stores, although they operate on a smaller scale than the preceding ones.

A. Cabezas, Calles San Martin and Sarmiento. This store is owned and operated by Avelino Cabezas and two brothers. The firm has recently enlarged its store and now has fairly attractive premises. There are three floors, the ground floor being given over to haber-

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dashery, women's goods, and novelties. The second floor is occupied by the tailoring and piece-goods sections, while the administration offices are on the top floor. The Cabezas brothers are of Spanish origin, but are progressive and have some modern ideas in regard to the running of their store. Much of their stock is imported from abroad, and at present they have two buyers in America. By far the greater portion of the business is in wearing apparel, but other lines are handled to a limited extent. This store attracts custom through advertised sacrifice sales and a system of credits similar to the dollar-down-dollar-a-week plan common in the United States. Whenever possible, the Cabezas store prefers to buy and sell under its own brands and does not care to handle trade-marked lines.

"A la Ciudad de Londres" (J. Brun & Co., Ltd.), Calles Carlos Pellegrini and Corrientes. Wearing apparel is the chief line of this store, but it carries several lines in addition, including toilet articles, perfumes, toys, tapestry, and house furniture and furnishings. Its ladies' white-goods department is especially complete. Much of its stock is locally manufactured, and it has 30 wagons constantly employed in distributing and collecting work from over 2,000 families. It also has its own shop with machinery installed. Its purchases abroad are considerable in amount, however, and it has buying agencies in New York, Philadelphia, Paris, and London. As in Harrods, members of the sales force receive a certain percentage on the amount of their sales. The firm is an old-established one, and is accredited with having been the first to establish a policy of selling at fixed prices. This is now customary in practically all stores.

"A la Ciudad de Mexico" (Olliver, Albert & Co.), Calles Florida and Sarmiento. After Gath & Chaves and Harrods, this store is the most important in Buenos Aires. It handles general lines, including house furnishings, toys, novelties, and wearing apparel. The building which it occupies fronts on the two most important retail streets in Buenos Aires, taking in fully half a block on Sarmiento and about 50 yards on Florida. It is five stories high and is served by elevators.

"Tienda San Juan" is an incorporated firm occupying extensive premises at the corner of Alsina and Piedras Streets. The house is controlled by Cibrian Bros., and operates with a capital of about $2,350,000. The governing board is composed as follows: President, Julian Cibrian; vice president, Juan Cibrian; treasurer, Martinez Cibrian; manager and secretary, Line Medel. The Tienda San Juan is one of the most popular stores in Buenos Aires and does an excellent business in dry goods, toilet articles, toys, house furnishings, and novelties in general. It carries all lines of wearing apparel, specializing in women's and children's wear. Its administrative policy and sales system does not differ materially from the ones already described.

L. Adhemar & Co., Calles Cangallo and Suipacha. This firm handles wearing apparel generally, toys, house furnishings, toilet articles, etc. Its sales system is modeled after those previously described, but its organization is not so complete. The store occupies two floors of fairly extensive dimensions. Both imported and domestic goods are handled, the firm making some of its purchases at the present time in the United States. The house specializes in white

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goods and special costumes for women and children, most of which are made locally.

In Rosario, the second city of the Argentine Republic, besides the branch store of Gath & Chaves, there are two other concerns that may properly be classified as department stores. These are Cassini y Cia., Calle San Martin 900, and Zamboni y Rey, at the corner of Calles Cordoba and San Martin. Both of these establishments are located in the business center of the city of Rosario and occupy edifices corresponding to their importance.

SPECIALTY STORES.

Another type of wearing-apparel store is the so-called specialty shop. There are literally hundreds of these in Argentina, and all of them are, to a certain degree, importers, and many are also manufacturers in a small way. Some of these stores deal only in men's wear. The most exclusive of this class are the English stores, such as the Birmingham, Calle Florida; the Brighton, Calle Sarmiento 645; the Manchester, Calle Florida 444; James Smart, Calle Bartolomé Mitre 601. They correspond to the finest haberdashery stores in the United States, and carry only the highest grade of goods. Most of their stock is imported, and, while much of it comes from England and Europe, all buy some goods in America. The selling methods of these stores do not differ widely from the customs prevailing in similar stores in the United States. The clerks are usually Argentinians, usually very well dressed, and always extremely courteous in bearing. There are no cash-carrier systems; the clerks take the customer's money and package to the cashier's desk, where the article is wrapped and change made. In the smaller shops it is customary for one or more of the employees to have access to the cash register, and selling and bundling is done by the same person.

Most of the larger stores maintain mail-order departments, and will send goods to any part of the Republic. There are also offices which take orders for special goods to be brought from Europe, although, so far as could be learned, no American mail-order house is so represented. Bridal trousseaux and gowns for special occasions are frequently obtained in this way, although the business has fallen off considerably since the beginning of the war.

The type of selling establishment corresponding to the American 5 and 10 cent store is not encountered in Argentina. Owing to the fact that practically all of the country's supplies of a character usually found in a store of this type are imported from abroad, it is believed that it would be difficult to establish such stores in Argentina. Articles could not be sold for the Argentina equivalent of 5 or 10 cents, and the amounts would probably have to be 50 centavos and 1 peso ($0.20 and $0.40). Freight rates, customs duties, and the established practice of taking large profits from few sales would militate against a lower combination.

POPULARITY OF SPECIAL SALES.

Special sales for "moving" goods are commonly used in Argentina. There are spring sales, fall sales, clearance, new stock, and inventory sales. They are generously advertised long in advance and are usually planned to fall at the beginning of a month, to take

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advantage of the supply of funds which the family will have from the previous month's earnings. These sales are generally well patronized, especially the annual stock-taking one, and many people of the middle class practice economy for weeks in order to buy more cheaply at the "sale."

It is pretty certain that the sales are not always genuine, although there is no doubt that some articles are disposed of at a figure which can hardly return the factory cost. Probably these goods are sold at a sacrifice in order to attract trade and to lend an air of legitimacy to the sale. Certain well-known brands whose values are fixed in the mind of the public are selected for this purpose. For example, one firm recently offered a high-grade American shoe at 9 or 10 pesos a pair, a shoe whose wholesale price could not have been less than $5, or at least a dollar more than the sale price. On the other hand, large stocks of merchandise made up especially for the sale are brought into the store, labeled with remarked tags, and disposed of in the heat of bargain hunting at prices equivalent to or in excess of what would be paid for the same goods ordinarily. In addition, remnants and old stock are worked in and sold, and when these give out entire bolts of cloth are sometimes cut up into "retazos," or remnants. Thus a person entering the store with the idea of purchasing a few yards of goods takes away, as a remnant, double the amount of the intended purchase.

During these periodical sales the stores are frequently crowded with eager shoppers until 8 or 9 o'clock in the evening, and frequently it will be midnight before the tired sales force can leave the counters. Increased commissions are granted and bonuses for the largest number or greatest value of sales are offered to keep up flagging spirits. The crowded aisles and counters offer opportunities for shoplifting, and some of the firms' employees are detailed to help the special inspectors guard against losses from this source. In spite of this and other precautions a certain amount is annually lost through thefts of this nature.

Bargain sales may last a few days or two weeks, and bookkeepers, stenographers, and other office assistants are drafted into the selling service. This naturally holds up the work in the accounting departments, and long hours must be served later to catch up with the work. For this extra effort it is customary to give the office employees a small premium at the end of the month during which the sale was held.

ADVERTISING.

The merchants in Argentina are familiar with the principles of modern advertising and show a willingness to spend money for it. One of the Buenos Aires daily newspapers with its full-page advertisements and numerous cuts, if it were not for the difference in languages, would very closely resemble any one of the popular advertising dailies in America. Well-made cuts are used and the effects are excellent. Besides the dailies there are a number of weekly and monthly publications, several of which have general circulation throughout the Republic.[1]

[1] Further information respecting newspapers and magazines in Argentina is given in "Paper, Paper Products, and Printing Machinery in Argentina, Uruguay, and Paraguay," Special Agents Series No. 163.

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4. SECTION OF WOMEN'S READY-MADE CLOTHING DEPARTMENT, HARRODS, BUENOS AIRES.

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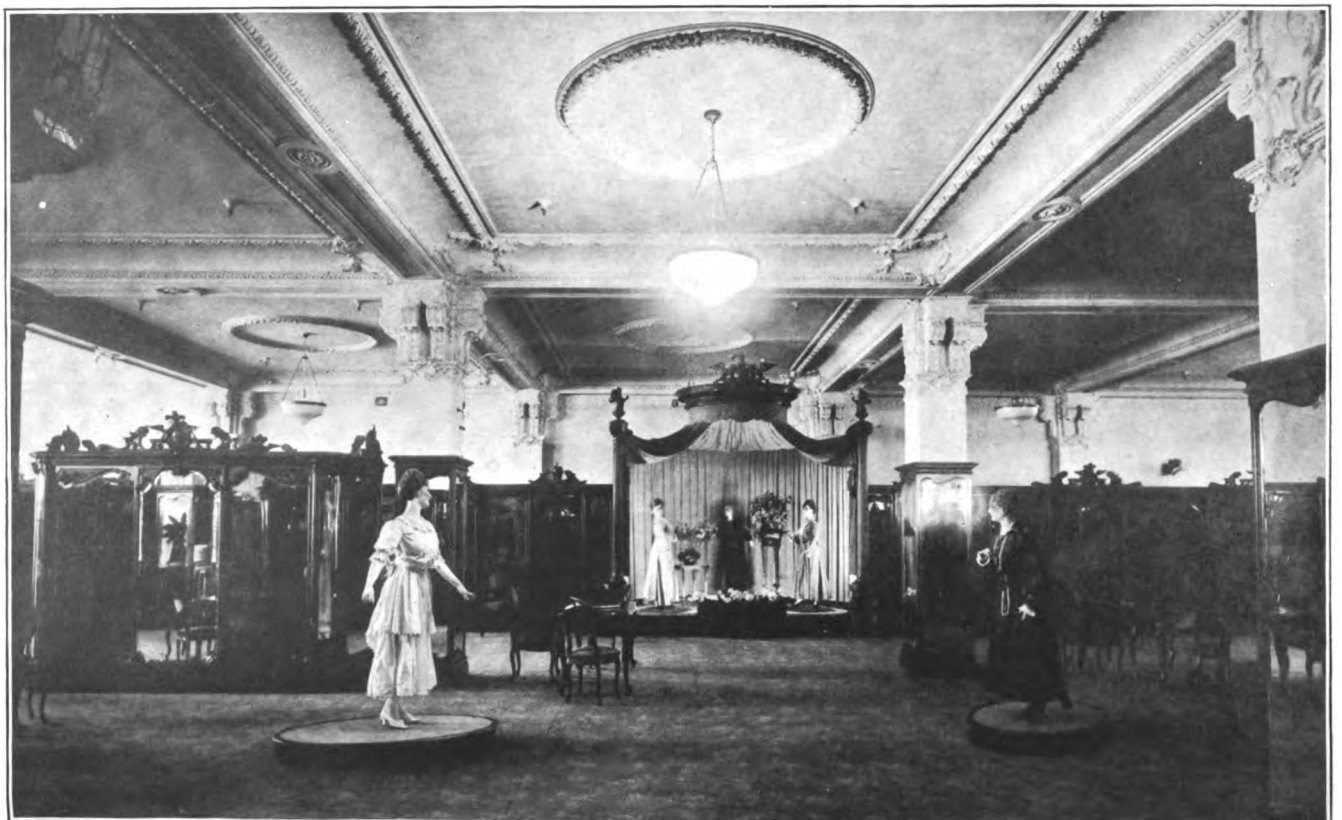

5. SPECIAL SECTION FOR DISPLAY OF IMPORTED MODELS OF GOWNS AND EVENING DRESSES, HARRODS, BUENOS AIRES.

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Most of the ordinary advertising schemes used in the States are known to the Argentinians. The "sandwich" man in his many and varied guises makes his daily appearance; masked characters in full-dress parade in Indian file bearing placards announcing the coming of a new North American motion picture; and giant figures, carrying a package of the newest brand of cigarettes, bow affably right and left as they stroll majestically up the street.

OUTDOOR ADVERTISING.

Blank-wall advertisements are common, but the case of one company, local manufacturers of a cheap brand of cigarettes, in furnishing and applying free of charge inside wall paper bearing its trademark in an attractive design, is thought to be unique. Many small tobacconists, shoe-shine parlors, etc., take advantage of this offer.

Billboard advertising within the city limits is almost never seen and only rarely along the railroads. The Argentine practice of erecting high buildings with one, two, or even three blank walls gives numerous opportunities for advertising. One of the best of this type seen recently is on a large wall surface of an eight or ten story building distinctly visible from the trains of the Central Argentine Railway coming into Buenos Aires. Another excellent specimen of wall advertising faces the main retail street of Buenos Aires, where it offers a clear view to thousands of passers-by daily. It consists of a huge cloth screen winding alternately on two rollers. It carries ten or a dozen "ads," and winding slowly shows a space about 30 by 50 feet at a time. At least two of the "ads" displayed are of American articles. At night the roll is electrically illuminated.

Electrical advertising is used to a fair extent, although not on a scale approaching that employed in America. Certain American companies have obtained frontage on the main business streets and are rapidly setting a faster pace in this type of advertising. Much good window advertising is lost to the Argentine merchant on account of the practice of letting down heavy iron shutters over all windows at the closing hour.

Street car advertising, both on the exterior and interior, is commonly practiced, but could be more fully developed.

PRINTED MATTER.

It is, of course, understood that advertising, to be of any real value in Argentina, should be in Spanish. That is the language of the country and only a few of the people understand English. If it is desired to reach the English-speaking population, numbering some 30,000. this may be done through two morning daily newspapers published in English. Properly placed railway car advertising in English may also bring satisfactory results.

Circular advertising outside of the Federal capital would probably be better left to some local agency. The literature can be prepared in Argentina almost if not quite as cheaply as in the United States and it would be more certain of judicious distribution. Provincial newspaper advertising is possible, many of these journals being accustomed to handling fairly complete publicity campaigns. This work may likewise be entrusted to one of the several publicity agencies operating in Buenos Aires.

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In the wearing apparel business it is not customary for the manufacturer in Argentina to advertise his product. This is partly due to the fact that the locally made article has as yet hardly gained sufficient prestige to warrant the expense of such a step. The opposition of the merchants, too, who prefer to sell all goods under their own name or mark, is a factor. The dealers will advertise, and liberally, but the main point of the "ad" must be the firm. If goods of a special mark are mentioned, even though it be a highly accredited one, the type announcing that part will be small and ineffective. Occasionally the larger stores will permit a special window display of some manufacturer's line, sold under his own mark, but such concessions are not frequent.

WINDOW DISPLAYS.

While store windows in Argentina are not so well adapted to display as they are in the United States, the retail merchants accomplish some excellent effects with them at times. Some of the best stores are equal in this respect to any in America, the most successful of them having adopted American ideas or engaged American window dressers. The general rule is, however, to try to get a sample of the store's whole stock in the show windows. This gives the window a crowded appearance, which is frequently heightened by placing a price card on or alongside each article. Only the most exclusive shops refrain from this practice.

Fixtures for window dressing are not equal to those employed by merchants in the United States, which leads to the belief that there is a market here for such fixtures. Manikins with wax heads are subject to customs duties of $7.72 each; bust manikins pay $3.70 each, while other kinds are charged $0.77 each.

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MARKET FOR PARTICULAR ARTICLES.

PRESENT ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

At the present time (January, 1918) the Argentine market is not experiencing any marked shortage in stocks of wearing apparel except in a few lines. The period covered by the years 1910, 1911, and 1912 will be recorded as a prosperous time in Argentina's history. During these years money flowed freely and goods were bought in large quantities. Huge stocks covered the shelves and crowded the warehouses to capacity. Speculation was the order of the day. Property values rose to quotations hitherto unknown and far in excess of their actual worth. Dealing in land became a sort of craze, and, as in the early days of American mining history, everyone possessed property or papers supposedly representing it. Both buying and selling operations were carried on feverishly. Then suddenly, in 1913, the bubble burst. Thousands of people were caught with holdings obtained at fabulous prices which were worth nothing at all in hard cash. Where money was available it could buy the finest properties for considerably under their real value. Thousands were ruined and speculation ceased abruptly. Even legitimate purchases began to fall off and retrenchment became the rule in all lines.

National consumption in many lines has dropped to approximately 50 per cent of what it was in normal times. The people are living carefully and sanely, and merchants declare that where before the war the consumer bought stockings, for example, by the dozen, they are now sold more frequently by the single pair. The sale of goods in quantities was so general that the stores placed the price per dozen beside merchandise displayed in the windows. For several years, too, the grain crops have been only relatively fair, and this has had more to do with the reduced purchasing power of the people than any other one thing. The indications, however, are for an exceptionally abundant harvest during the present year, which should materially change the difficult situation now prevailing throughout the country.

MEN'S SUITS.

Men's dress is accorded its full and deserving importance in Argentina. The Argentinian may be depended upon to be dressed to meet the hour and the occasion according to his ideas, which, generally speaking, correspond to those of the rest of the civilized world. Seasonal changes of fashion follow closely those prevailing in Europe. English and French styles in wearing apparel are most popular, notwithstanding the country's large Italian and Spanish population.

The Argentine people are not slow to appreciate the comforts and advantages of improvements in dress, although the merchants,

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many of them of conservative Spanish or Genoese stock, are less inclined to accept them. The clever developments in dress as exemplified by the products of modern American manufacturers can obtain acceptance here, but it will require some time and work to introduce them.

The general tone of wearing apparel in Argentina is a modest one. The ideas in regard to mourning in practically all the Latin American countries keep nearly half the women and many of the men clothed in black. Aside from this, however, there is a strong inclination toward plain dark colors and quiet patterns in men's suitings.[1] Gray is decidedly the most popular color for sack suits. A large percentage of the men's ready-made suits are of gray, and the tailors are obliged to carry cloth of this color in many different shades and patterns to fill their clients' orders. Dark blue is another favorite color and black comes next, there also being some sales in fancies and other plain colors. Striking departures in the matter of dress, such as light checks in suits, heavy striped shirtings, gaudy ties or hosiery, etc., find little favor with the Argentinians.

The proportion of custom-made garments in the total consumption of clothing in Argentina is generally estimated to be approximately 70 per cent, but it is believed that this is too high and that really not more than 50 per cent of the people have their outer clothing made to measure. All the large department stores and many of the smaller "general" stores and men's furnishings suppliers carry more or less complete lines of ready-made clothing. To the farmer coming into town for a day or two on business, or the laborer on a holiday, it is much more convenient to go in and pick out a ready-made suit and take it home with him than it would be to wait around for a week or 10 days for fittings and finishing of a custom-made one. A steadily growing mail-order business between the outlying districts and the Federal capital will also tend to further this demand for ready-made suits.

COMPETITION OF CUSTOM-MADE GARMENTS.

Before the war ready-made business suits sold for an average of 30 to 35 pesos ($12.70 to $14.85), while suits were fashioned to order for $30 to $35. Present prices are about 30 per cent higher than these figures, ready-made suits now retailing for 45 to 50 pesos ($19.80 to $22) and custom-made ones from 90 to 100 pesos ($39.60 to $44). Thus an American ready-made suit wholesaling before the war for $12 or $13, and which represented an investment of from $18 to $20 by the time it was on the counters of the importer, found it difficult to compete with the tailored goods, since according to business standards of Argentina it would have to be retailed at from $28 to $30 in order to prove an attractive proposition to the dealer. What was true at that time is even more so at present, when all costs and values have greatly increased.

The official customs statistics indicate clearly the comparative unimportance of present imports of men's ready-to-wear clothing. Dur-

[1] A collection of samples showing the weaves, weights, and colors of cloth generally desired for men's outer clothing has been furnished by a Buenos Aires tailor and filed in the Bureau's New York office, where they may be examined with many other clothing samples. These samples indicate the conservative tone of patterns and colors most in demand.

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ing the year 1916 importations of ready-made sack suits amounted to less than $4,000 in value. Of these, Great Britain sent 153 suits, valued at $2,260, and France was second with 63 suits, worth $1,076. The United States shipped 7 suits, valued at $101. In dress suits no better showing was made, the total imports being less than $500 in value. In certain allied lines, such as separate trousers and overcoats, the results were a bit better. Imports of trousers amounted to 441 dozen pairs, valued at $13,413, while 1,855 overcoats were appraised at $27,933. Practically all of these goods were of wool or mixtures thereof. Great Britain held first place with 397 dozen pairs of trousers, valued at $12,560. No other country sent anywhere near this amount, and total exports from the United States were 27 dozen pairs, at $486. Imports of all classes of fancy and staple vests were valued at slightly more than $500.

There is some prejudice among Argentinians against the ready-to-wear suit as such, but it is not in this fact that the chief difficulty in introducing foreign goods lies. It is rather in the tariff protection afforded the domestic article. This and the general unsatisfactoriness of the locally produced ready-made suit account for the fact that its use has not as yet progressed much beyond the middle and poorer classes. The ready-made clothing industry in Argentina is little organized and not highly efficient, and were it not for the protection given it by the tariff it would offer only weak opposition to the imported articles. The local manufacturers have the advantage of being established on the ground, where they study the fancies and requirements of the market to much better advantage than the foreign maker. They are thus in a better position to furnish what the trade wants in styles and patterns. In cut and quality, however, the domestic ready-made suits are inferior to those produced in America, and the Argentine workers do not obtain an equal finish in their product.

There is in Argentina no factory dedicated solely to the manufacture of men's ready-to-wear suits. One large firm tried to build up a business in the manufacture of this line, but could not make a success of it except in the cheapest grades and in civil and military uniforms. Most of the ready-to-wear suits offered in the large retail shops and department stores are the product of a separate department of the same store, the firm being engaged in both the merchandising and manufacturing business at the same time. Some of the large stores, such as Gath & Chaves, Harrods, Del'Aqua, and others, have good-sized factories separate from the store and operating entirely independent of it, although manufacturing for the store only, while others simply set aside the basement or a floor for the manufacture of the ready-made stock. The great majority of the work is done outside the stores and factories by home workers, who call to receive the work and deliver it when completed, the pay being so much per piece. Most of the ready-made clothing now being sold in Argentina is made in this way. Naturally it does not make for uniformity of design or finish, and this is one of the reasons for the low status of the merchandise.

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STYLES IN CUT AND FINISH.

Although in a general way the styles of men's suits worn in Argentina follow the English fashions; in detail there is a difference. Trousers are worn higher at the waist than is common in America, but not so high as is customary in Europe. Suits are usually of three pieces, and the coat and vest are fitted more closely at the waist than is desired in the United States. For daily wear the sack suit is most popular. The coat is preferred shorter than in the United States. Fancy cuffs are not worn, but flaps have long been in fashion. Most of the coats are of single-breast design, although the double-breast coat is sometimes seen. Trousers are worn both with and without cuffs, this being a detail that is best left to the individual buyer. Suits may be full or half lined for winter wear, while for summer a quarter lining or none at all is used. Linings are commonly of percale, serge, or alpaca. Two-piece suits in summer weights are being offered by some of the stores in Buenos Aires, and it is believed that they will eventually prove popular with the public. They are frequently worn with a white or linen-color vest, which may be bought separately for 5 to 15 pesos ($2.20 to $6.60). The two-piece suits are made in imitation of American styles, with rather large trousers. Trousers in the best ready-made suits do not generally have more than three pockets, while the coat usually has three outside and one within. Vests have either two or four pockets and five or six buttons. Both two and three button coats are worn, the latter being more favored this season. Coats now being worn are silghtly cut away in front, and roll collars are more in evidence than the flat.

Dress clothes ready to wear are also sold by several stores in Buenos Aires, and Gath & Chaves offer a full-dress suit, made from English cashmere, silk lined and faced, at 120 m/n ($50.95). A cheaper design may be had from the firm of A. Cabezas at 95 m/n ($40.34). Dinner clothes are offered by the latter firm at 79, 85, 100, and 115 m/n ($33.54, $36.10, $42.46, $48.83), while Gath & Chaves sell an excellent suit for 90 m/n ($38.21). Cutaway suits are perhaps more commonly worn in Buenos Aires than they are in New York, and are popular in black and colors. They are also sold ready-made and cost about the same as a dinner suit. There are no special details in the making of these different types of dress wear. The above-described garments were all made in the workshops of the stores mentioned, and, indeed, no ready-made clothes are imported by any of them, with the exception of some workmen's overalls carried by Gath & Chaves, and which were bought in the United States. The latter were in the form of coat and trousers (overalls and jumper) and were exhibited in reply to a question as to whether the store imported any ready-made clothing from abroad.

Extra trousers with ready-made suits are not yet an established fact in Argentina, although many of the clothing stores carry fairly complete lines of separate trousers. Their use, however, is not general, and full suits are nearly always worn by the native Argentinians. Gath & Chaves offer separate trousers cut from imported English cloth at from 11.50 to 25 m/n ($4.88 to $10.62) a pair. The greatest sale for separate trousers is in flannel goods for sporting use, and in this line a few numbers have been imported from England. Most of them, however, are made in the country, and are

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retailed in men's sizes at $4 to $10 a pair. Linen trousers for beach wear and tennis may be had ready-made for $3 or $4, while a cheaper article of cotton duck or drill is offered at $2 or $3. These trousers are usually advertised as being cut "American style," which indicates that they are made short in the waist, peg top, and rather full in the leg.

MEN'S SUITS FOR SUMMER WEAR.

More than half of the people inhabiting the Argentine Republic live within some 200 miles of the Federal capital, so that the climate prevailing there is a governing factor in the sale of clothing throughout the country. The climate of the area referred to corresponds more or less to that of northern California. There is no rainy season. Lighter weight clothing is worn during the summer than during the winter, but still not so light as is commonly worn in those parts of the United States possessing similar climatic conditions.

In one or two of the northern Provinces of the Republic the people have gradually adopted the custom of wearing white suits during the hot weather, but in general the people of the other sections have made little difference in their summer and winter clothing, except for the weight of the goods. The many classes of materials that have been developed in the United States and found to be extremely comfortable for summer wear have not yet found favor in Argentina. Woolen goods for summer wear range in weight from 11 to 15 ounces. Linen suits are worn to a small extent in Buenos Aires and achieve their greatest sale in the northern Provinces. Their use in Tucuman and Santiago del Estero is quite general in the warmer season. The type of clothing known as Palm Beach could be made very popular, since the summers are very long and warm. One American manufacturer of this kind of cloth has an agent in Buenos Aires who has done some business. The tailors to whom he sold the stock, however, charge about $33 for a suit, which restricts its popularity. There has been no attempt to interest the merchants in the ready-made suit of this or other summer materials. The foreign element of the population, especially the English and American, have already shown their approval of its use during the hot weather of January and February. The time for sending samples of summer goods is from the middle of October to the middle of December, so that they may be received in Argentina in December and January.

WOOLENS AND WOOLEN MIXTURES.

Woolen goods are the most popular for winter wear in Argentina. Prior to the war most of the woolen fabrics were imported from England, Belgium, France, and Germany, the first two mentioned countries furnishing the finest grades. Since that time American woolens have entered to a certain extent. The demand has been for the smoother weaves rather than for the rough tweeds and cheviots, and in all lines conservative colorings are demanded. Aside from the considerable proportion of black suits worn, there is a general liking for dark blue and the various shades of gray, preferably in solid colors. The latter is an especially good seller in Argentina, and tailors and dealers require an extremely complete set of samples in

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that color. Few self-weaves are worn, but when they are, narrow effects are most popular; narrow herringbone, small quiet pin checks, pencil lines, etc. In the very high grades bolder patterns are, of course, in some demand, but care should be exercised that even in this case the patterns be not extreme. As in the United States, serge is one of the most popular goods for ordinary daily wear, and the bulk of the business in woolens is done in that line and in gray mixtures.

The weight of woolens for winter wear ranges from 16 to 22 ounces. This has been a difficult fact to impress upon the North American manufacturer of wool fabrics for suitings. He is inclined to think that any clime south of Florida must be tropical. A single visit to Buenos Aires during the months of July or August would dissipate this idea very promptly and he would appreciate the reason for the call for the heavy-weight goods. Prior to the war much 15 and 16 ounce suiting was introduced from Germany and Italy for $0.65 to $0.75 per yard. This was a woolen mixture or more than 62 per cent cotton. In such a low grade as this the appearance of the cloth is of secondary importance; the demand is for the softest "handle" with the greatest weight. The usual practices are resorted to in order to acquire the necessary weight. Samples of winter fabrics should be in the hands of the importers in Argentina by May or June.

There is a large demand for coarse mixed wool or cotton clothing in Argentina. In this line the ready-made article finds its best sale, and its production furnishes the chief employment of the local ready-made clothing factories. Heavy cotton mixtures are largely imported from Italy in the piece and made up in the country. The Italians have shown such a capacity for caring for this trade that it is believed that it would be difficult to displace them. They are accustomed to offering very complete lines of excellent samples, and will sell in small quantities, which the American manufacturer is loath to do. For this trade the goods should be 62 or more per cent cotton.

CLOTHES WORN IN CONNECTION WITH SPORTS.

In so far as clothes are concerned, riding is the chief sport in Argentina. Riding clothes are usually made to order and the same tailor that makes the everyday suit will prepare a riding costume for his client. There are several shops, however, that make a specialty of riding clothes. The costume is the regulation English one and gray checks are popular. Ten to twenty per cent cotton in the goods is a desirable mixture, while the weight should be of 24 or 26 ounces. As riding is confined, as a sport, to the well-to-do class, the clothes are generally custom made.

Tennis probably holds second place, both as a popular sport and as furnishing a demand for clothes. There are many tennis clubs all over the country, and the importations of white flannel trousers for this sport form an appreciable item in the total for sporting garments. Many of the stores carry large stocks of tennis shirts and trousers, but most of the goods are made up locally. England has always supplied most of those imported.

Football, which is the real national game, does not require special clothing to a very large extent. The school teams and professional

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players wear jerseys of wool or cheap cotton mixtures and short trunks of cloth. These are generally manufactured in the country.

Boating has taken a strong hold on that portion of the population having access to the sea or a navigable river, and there are many boat clubs in and around Buenos Aires. It was the boat crew, clad in a sleeveless white jersey and short trunks, that gave the first impetus to the sale of "athletic" underwear in Argentina. Except for these goods, and such lines as socks, ties, and handkerçhiefs, boating does not call for any special clothing.

Golf is rapidly assuming a leading place in the esteem of both Argentine and resident foreign inhabitants of the regions around the River Plate. The golfers usually dress for the game in the accepted costume commonly used in North America. Stockings may be had ready-made, but the coat and trousers are obtained from the tailors who make riding suits.

The only other game requiring special clothing is baseball, and this sport has not yet developed sufficiently to make it profitable for a dealer to handle uniforms as a part of his stock. Shoes and playing equipment are carried by at least three firms and have sold well, but the market has been confined to the few hundred Americans directly or indirectly interested in the game. The teams usually order their suits in the United States, but this season one team had its uniforms made locally at a cost, including stockings and caps, of about 35 pesos. They are not so satisfactory, however, as the American ones, although the latter cost nearly 50 pesos ($21.20), exclusive of shoes.

The investigator feels that an itemized list of the wearing apparel used in the foregoing sports, or a detailed description of its features, will not be necessary, since the American manufacturer interested in these lines will understand from the suggestions offered what is needed in the Argentine market.

PECULIAR CONDITIONS OF THE MARKET.

The Argentine market for North American men's ready-made clothing presents some conditions that are a trifle peculiar. The American manufacturer does not have to meet and combat a strong European competition, as he would in many lines of wearing apparel, but this can hardly be taken as an encouraging indication, since if the problem of selling ready-made clothing in the country were a simple one, there would certainly not be a lack of such opposition. Indeed, if this were the only difficulty, the solution might be expected to lie in the far greater development and higher organization of the industry in the United States as compared with its position in Europe.

A certain amount of prejudice against ready-made suits will have to be overcome and people taught that it is not necessary to patronize a custom tailor in order to appear well dressed. In quality the locally made goods would not interfere with the sale of a high-class article, but the high duties protecting them is a severe handicap. As only the superior quality of suits would be imported, the difficulties of selling a previously unknown product at a higher price than the known one must be overcome. So far, no foreign manufacturer has worked out a satisfactory answer to the proposition, but it should

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also be stated that the nation which should be most interested (our own) has made little or no effort to do so.

There is little doubt that the Argentine people can be educated to wear ready-made clothing, but, as was true in the United States, the expenditure of time and money will be necessary to bring this about. Advertising would have to be widespread and persistent, especially if it were intended to sell goods under a special mark, since there is a prejudice among importers against handling articles under other than their own marks. No manufacturer of ready-made clothing in Argentina advertises his product under his own brand to the consuming public, or, in fact, does advertising at all in an extensive way. Furthermore, much of the ready-made clothing is made under the same roof of the store in which it is offered for sale, and it is sold under the mark of the individual store. No stocks of imported ready-made clothing were encountered in any store during this investigation.

It is extremely doubtful if there is much money to be made in the sale of ready-to-wear clothes in Argentina under present conditions, or will be for some time to come, and this fact, as well as the foregoing considerations, imply that the undertaking is one for a strongly established organization, with experience in foreign markets, that, with an eye to the future, is willing and able to stand a period, more or less protracted, of very inadequate returns and probable operating losses. If the effort is going to be made, however, the present is probably as good a time as will ever be had for beginning it. The difficulties and disappointments suffered by the public during the past two or three years have made them more amenable to economic instruction, and the bumper grain crops, surpassing all previous ones in volume, shortly to be harvested will provide the people with funds, which have been woefully restricted during the past few years.

SUGGESTED METHODS FOR INTRODUCING AMERICAN CLOTHING.

The best method of entering the market would be either to establish a branch office of the manufactory in Buenos Aires, or to send down an expert in the line to study the requirements of the individual Argentinian as regards the cut and fit of his clothes and turn the commercial end of the business over to a local representative, who will be better prepared to canvass the trade, watch credits, push advertising, etc.

The establishment and backing up of an American clothier in opening a good men's clothing and furnishings store in Buenos Aires on modern American lines would be another and possibly ideal way of effecting an entrance to the market. The indications for improved economic conditions throughout the country within six months or a year lend attractiveness to this plan, as the Argentinian is naturally a free spender so long as he has a peso in his pocket.

The only remaining alternative which can be suggested by the investigator, and the one which should perhaps have been mentioned first as being the most likely of attaining success, is the establishment by North American manufacturers of branch factories in Argentina. Such an enterprise would have the benefit of the advanced organization, operating experience, improved machinery, and skilled chief operatives which make the ready-made clothing industry in

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the United States the most successful of its kind in the world. It is probable that such a proposition would prove remunerative from the start, and in considering ways and means of entering the Argentine market the American manufacturer is recommended to investigate the possibilities of this suggestion.

CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Customs duties on ready-made clothing entering Argentina are usually based on the number of garments. For example, every woolen or woolen-mixture suit is valued, according to the tariff law, at $15 Argentine gold, and on this value a duty of 47 per cent is levied. Thus, although a suit may be worth but $10 wholesale, yet, if it comes under the classification of wool or mixture thereof, it must pay duty on the valuation of 15 pesos gold. The same would also apply if the wholesale value of the suit were in excess of the fixed value. Following are the exact duties, in United States currency, on men's suits and separate pieces thereof:

Sack suits, of wool or mixture, $6.80 each; frock or dress suits of similar material, $8.16 each; suits of cotton or cotton mixture, not containing silk, each $1.81.

Separate coats, of wool or mixture thereof, $1.81 each; from cotton, linen, or other material, except wool or silk, $0.68.

Separate vests, of wool or mixture thereof, $1.36 each; from cotton, linen, or other material, except wool or silk, $0.91.

Separate trousers, of wool or mixture thereof, $21.77 per dozen pairs; from cotton, linen, or other material, except wool or silk, $6.80 per dozen pairs.

Where the linings of the aforementioned articles are of silk, or of a material containing silk, the duty is augmented 20 per cent.

On suits for children the duty is one-half of the rates specified.

It will be noted that the duties on a three-piece suit amount to more than they would on the three pieces composing the suit if brought in separately. This difference on a three-piece suit is nearly $2, while on a two-piece suit it would be considerably over $3. Advantage of this circumstance should not be taken, however, except under special instructions from the importer, as there might be some corresponding disadvantage in such a course which would offset the apparent gain.

MEN'S OVERCOATS.

Overcoats are very generally worn in Argentina during the winter season. There is not much demand, however, for the between-seasons overcoat commonly worn in the United States, and the light topcoat is rarely seen. A large proportion of the overcoats used are made in the country, either to measure or to stock. Imports for 1916 amounted to less than $30,000, Great Britain sending $27,176 worth, or practically all of this line. France and the United States, following in order, sent a few hundred dollars' worth each.

A very heavy overcoat is not required for Argentina, and the majority of these garments are of light weight and medium length. More of the smooth cloths are used in their manufacture, and the materials include coverts, tibets, and light-weight vicuña. Goods

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of 20 to 28 ounces are popular for overcoatings. Styles change continually, and it would be impossible to say to-day what will be worn six months hence. At present, single-breasted, plain overcoats are being worn, though many are made with a strap in the back. The overcoat for a man is usually more closely fitting than is customary in the United States. In traveling in Argentina it is necessary to have an overcoat during the winter season, as the trains are generally inadequately heated, while during the summer some sort of outer garment is desirable to protect the clothing from the dust and dirt. Practically all the stores catering to the men's trade in exterior clothing carry a line of overcoats. Dress coats, frock coats, ulsters, and sport coats are all offered in complete lines ready to wear. Linen dust coats are made up and sold by thousands, and waterproof coats form a large item. The latter are practically all sold ready-made, the higher priced ones being imported from abroad, largely from England. The "Burwell" is one of the widely known English marks sold in Argentina. Raincoats have also been received from the United States. Quite a few are manufactured in the country from materials imported from abroad. Rubberized materials are not popular in this line.

OTHER OUTER CLOTHING FOR MEN.

Ready-made dress suits and dinner suits are sold in several stores in Buenos Aires, although, of course, the great majority of these clothes are custom made. An excellent dinner suit may be had ready-made for about 90 pesos ($38.20), while a full-dress suit is offered at from 95 to 140 pesos ($40.34 to $59.45). Morning clothes or cutaways are also offered from stock. They are commonly made from cheviot, cassimere, or serge, in black or gray, or in fashionable colors. A cutaway suit is sold at from 80 or 90 pesos up to 130 pesos ($33.97, $38.21, to $55.20). Imports from abroad of this class of clothing are practically nil, the total amount for 1916 being 16 dress suits from France and England.

Fancy vests have declined in popularity to a marked extent in the last few years. The fancy vest is an article that can readily be supplied ready made, and those that are sold are generally in this form. The imports are very small in value, the total amount for 1916 being slightly more than $500. the greatest number coming from Great Britain, which sent $477 worth. Ten came from the United States. The materials of these imported vests included wool, cotton, linen, etc. The fancy vest most worn at this time is a linen garment, natural color, double breasted, and very close fitting. It retails at 5 to 15 pesos ($2.12 to $6.37). During the winter a fancy vest of vicuña or pyrineé cloth is often worn. Colored striped vests for domestic servants, footmen, etc., are carried in stock by most of the department stores. These are frequently made with long sleeves, in black or white. Local production practically supplies the Argentine market for this line.

Riding breeches and full riding costumes are growing in popularity among the rural population of Argentina. The "bombacha," a full pantaloon with large baggy legs tied around the ankle with a string, formerly satisfied the requirements of the native peon or rancher for rough, working clothes. They are still sold in large

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quantities, but the riding clothes are gradually replacing them to a great extent. The latter can be obtained ready made in khaki, corduroy, and other cheap but durable materials for equal or less cost than the amount paid for the bombachas. The style of jacket worn with the riding breeches varies, but is usually some form of the Norfolk type.

Overalls may be said to be little worn in Argentina. Only one firm was found handling them. They consisted of a full suit, jacket and trousers, such as is commonly worn by railway mechanics in the United States, and, according to the salesman who showed them, were taken mostly by railroad employees in Argentina. The material was the strong, blue goods commonly used for making overalls. The retail price for a suit was $16.50 m/n ($7), and this was stated to be the main reason for their limited sale. These particular goods were imported from a large American concern dealing in general supplies for railway employees.

The native carter or mechanic simply wears the oldest clothes he possesses when about his daily tasks. Stained and dirty trousers, a threadbare shirt, and an ancient handkerchief knotted about the throat are quite sufficient for his needs. Municipal and Government employees wear special working clothes, but they are more in the nature of uniforms.

Liveries are sold ready made or are made to order by the Argentine tailor. Little or nothing is imported in this line, except, of course, the materials for making them. Railway and street car operators are uniformed, most of the clothing being locally manufactured. Uniforms are bought ready made. The police and firemen also obtain their clothing for official use ready made. Uniforms and clothing for the troops and sailors are practically all made in the country, and are issued to the recruit ready to wear. Only the officers have their uniforms custom made.

MEN'S SHIRTS.

The current style in men's shirts is of a type that is generally considered out of date in the United States. This is the old-fashioned, pull-over-the-head shirt. The native Argentinian is progressive in matters of dress as well as in other matters, and the reason for the apparent nonacceptance of the coat shirt lies in the fact that imported shirts have in the past been brought in almost exclusively from Europe and were made after the patterns dictated by European usage. The coat shirt will unquestionably be accepted if properly presented to the public, but it will be a difficult matter, inasmuch as shirts form one of the groups of articles of wearing apparel which, generally speaking, it is not convenient to import. Nothing approaching the publicity campaigns in the United States in favor of the coat shirt has ever been attempted in this country, though there is every reason to believe that it would have a good effect and show very positive results in increased sales.

There are several differences between the preferences of Argentina and the United States in the matter of what is right in daily shirt wear. In the States the ordinary shirt for everyday wear will be made up entirely from the same material, and front, sleeves, and body will have the same pattern. In Argentina the contrary is

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largely true. The bosom will very likely be pleated and of some conventional pattern, while the rest of the shirt, back, body, and sleeves, except possibly the cuffs, will be of some distinct material and generally plain white. Piqué is one of the materials most commonly used in the bosom of a shirt, while the remainder will be made of bramantine or Madras cloth. The fact that shirts for daily wear ordinarily have a bosom is in itself a wide departure from American practice, but almost all men's shirts sold in Argentina are made in this style.

Another feature common to men's shirts worn in Argentina and almost never seen in the United States is a little cloth tab or "dicky" at the base of the bosom in front, with a buttonhole for buttoning onto the undergarment. Such a tab is found on dress shirts in the United States, and the fact that practically all shirts in Argentina are of the bosom type accounts for its general use. A man's shirt without this feature is rarely seen in this market, either on the domestic article or the imported one.

The very restricted use of the coat shirt here, as compared with its almost universal wear in the States, is the most radical difference in shirt customs. Several stores, however, carry a line of coat shirts to satisfy a more or less constant demand from American clients and from others who have lived in the United States and acquired a liking for this style.

Shirts of practically all grades of quality are to be found on sale in the department stores and men's haberdasheries of the larger cities. Prices vary from 50 cents for the cheapest workman's garment to $12 or $15 for a fancy, pleated silk article affected by the fastidious dresser. Throughout the interior the selection offered is of course very much restricted, and one of the most popular types for wear in the smaller centers is a cotton-cloth shirt made to retail at three for 10 pesos, about $4.25. This is a relatively cheap shirt, although its finish is fairly good. It may be had with either stiff or musketeer cuffs. Reinforced collar bands and buttonholes are a feature of practically all the different grades. Detached cuffs are still commonly seen, although the majority of the shirts now sold have the attached cuff of either the stiff single type or the soft double musketeer.

PREFERENCES IN PARTICULAR LINES.

White shirts.—White shirts for daily wear are popular in Argentina and have not been displaced by the colored or pattern shirt to the extent that they have in the United States. The great majority of them are made with pleats, either in the simple form occasionally seen in America or in an inserted bosom.

Colored shirts.—The colored or pattern shirt has only recently come into popularity in Argentina, but its use is increasing. The gorgeous colorings and loud patterns are cordially disliked and are seldom seen, either in the stores or on the street. The men generally prefer pin stripes in black and white or a modest pattern in neutral colors.

Dress shirts.—Generally speaking, dress shirts are made more or less along the same lines the world over, and the styles in vogue in Argentina conform to customary usage. Rather plain designs are preferred. The very fine tucked shirts for evening and dinner wear

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were never accepted here and are not considered especially good form among the Argentinians. The use of white dress shirts is confined to dress occasions, although bosom shirts are worn daily. In a good quality, fairly high-priced dress shirt the presentation often counts for much. One of the samples of a white dress shirt submitted with this report (sample No. 7), made by the Austrian firm of Joss & Lowenstein, of Vienna, illustrates well what may be done in the way of attractive presentation.

Negligee shirts.—The place of the American negligee shirt is taken in Argentina by the "Crimea." There is not much difference in the appearance of the two types, except that the Crimea is sometimes made with a bosom. The soft-cuff negligee, either in white or in colors, is not considered as dressy as the shirt with stiff cuffs, and its use is not so common as in the United States. Such a shirt is sometimes worn for economy in laundering. The material used in making these shirts may be zephyr or cotton or woolen flannelette.

Flannel shirts.—The local English community, following home customs, are extensive users of flannel shirts with detachable collar and soft cuffs. This type of shirt has a limited native demand, but the total is relatively very small. The colors usually worn are quiet mixtures, with a few plain shades.

Silk shirts.—Owing to the extremely high tariff on silk shirts, which makes them very expensive, only the well-to-do can afford to wear them. A line of them is usually to be found in a varied assortment in many of the best shops and in the department stores. Stripes or designs are always in white or neutral tints, and the pronounced stripes, in green, pink, violet, etc., commonly seen in the United States, are not in favor. A popular style has the bosom of the shirt in pleated silk, plain white, or cream color, and soft silk cuffs, while the body and sleeves are of fine Madras. Such a shirt, very well made up, may be had in the local shops catering to men for $4.25.

Custom shirts.—As in all South American countries, the shirt made to order is popular in Argentina, and because of the high rate of duty on the imported manufactured article, it is less expensive proportionately than in the United States. Semiskilled labor, while perhaps not equally as expert as American labor of the same class, is nevertheless cheaper. Materials for the made-to-order shirt are invariably imported and the finished article is usually of a very satisfactory quality.

Sport shirts.—The wide-collared sport shirt, so popular in America in recent seasons, has not come into general use down here. The chief game being football, in which a jersey is worn, no shirting is required. In tennis the usual oxford or cheviot is worn, usually made with short sleeves and low attached collar. The one sport in which the sport shirt is used, and very generally, is rowing. This is a very popular form of diversion in the cities along the river and seacoast, and there are many clubs for its development.

Novelties.—The well-dressed young men of the country affect a colored shirt with a detachable collar to match. A peculiar modification of this type, and one much in vogue during the past season, has a stiff bosom with horizontal stripes. Such a type is illustrated by sample No. 12, a shirt of domestic manufacture made to retail at approximately $2.

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IMPORTS AND DOMESTIC PRODUCTION.

Imports.—The total imports for the last full normal year of trade amounted to only 3,427 dozen, with a value of $29,637. The average rate of customs duties collected on these shirts was $3.50 per dozen. The trade was almost evenly divided between England and France, the United States sending $2,745 worth. Since the outbreak of the war imports have fallen off greatly in this line, and in 1915 total imports amounted to only $8,188, of which Great Britain furnished nearly the entire amount.

Domestic production.—The local shirt-making industry holds a strong position in this country, and there are several large factories turning out a very excellent product, one which compares favorably with the imported article from any country. In addition to the concerns manufacturing on a wholesale scale for the retail trade, there is hardly a single store of first importance that is not equipped for making a large part of its line of men's shirts. There are half a dozen large manufacturing firms with plants in or near the Federal capital whose main production is men's shirts. These firms manufacture exclusively for the retail trade. Two of the largest ones, making a good to medium grade of shirts, are of German or Austrian origin and have been in business here 25 and 11 years, respectively. The two largest department stores in the country, Gath & Chaves and B. A. Harrods, have departments for the cutting and finishing of men's shirts, and a large portion of the stock in this line which they retail to the consumer is made in the country.

DESIGNATION OF SIZES IN CENTIMETERS.

The native Argentinian is on an average slightly smaller in stature than the American. An American retailer in placing an order would begin and end with a half size larger than an Argentine merchant placing a similar order. The markings to indicate sizes are always in centimeters and neither the merchant nor his customer would be likely to know what size he needed in American measures. The majority of sales are in sizes from 37 to 42 centimeters, but a full line includes sizes from 35 to 48. The figures indicate the circumference at the neckband. The use of shirts with attached collars is not general, except among the poorer classes and in the cheaper grade of shirts.

PACKING AND CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Packing.—As the duties on imported shirts are levied on the unit basis, viz, a certain per cent on a fixed valuation per dozen shirts, they may be packed with more attention to appearance and presentation than lines subject to a customs duty on a basis of weight. It will probably not be advisable to pack more than a half dozen shirts in a carton, and it might be advisable to place a thin partition between each double bank of cartons. These details, however, will always depend more or less on individual instructions by the buyer. Cases should be carefully secured from the outside, as their bulk is likely to be large, and large packing cases are more easily pilfered than smaller ones, and shirts are an especially tempting article.

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Economy of space is, of course, an important consideration in packing for export shipment, and with ocean freights at their present level this is an especially important detail.

Duties.—Ordinary cotton shirts, in white or colors, with plain starched bosom, are subject to a duty of 47 per cent on a fixed valuation of $7 Argentine gold per dozen. In American money this duty would be $3.17 per dozen shirts, or about $0.26 apiece.

Cotton shirts with linen bosom, or mixed with any other material except silk, are dutiable at the rate of 47 per cent on a fixed value of $14 Argentine gold per dozen. This is $6.35 United States currency per dozen, or a duty of $0.53 per shirt. Shirts similar to the foregoing, embroidered, or with the bosom of piqué or linen, or half linen, pay customs duties of $10.89 United States currency per dozen.

Linen, cotton, or wool shirts, containing silk, are subject to customs duties of $12.70 per dozen.

On shirts for children the duties are one-half of the foregoing rates. Shirts under size 34 are considered as children's wear.

GENERAL MARKET CONDITIONS.

There is no general complaint here relative to the fading of colors in men's shirts of any grade. The fact that so many of the shirts are made from plain white goods is one reason for this, and another is that the colors which are popular in this market are soft neutral tones which do not fade as readily as do the more bright, pronounced hues. The laundering facilities, even in the Federal capital, are not very good, and in the interior the methods of cleansing clothing are the most elementary.

In workmen's shirts it is believed that there is the poorest chance of doing any business in this market. These shirts are naturally of the cheapest grade, and it is in the inferior grades that the domestic manufacture offers the strongest competition to the imported article. In addition, the duties on a very cheap shirt are proportionately heavier than on a first-quality one. Workmen's shirts here are usually made from facinette, bramantine, or flannelette, and in dark colors. It is possible that the black bombazine shirts often seen in the United States might be introduced down here as a specialty line.

In the interior of the country it is customary for the small farmer or the "gaucho" (native cowboy) to go to the nearest store and buy a whole bolt of cloth, from which his wife makes shirts for her husband, undergarments for herself, and new dresses and suits for the children, all from the same piece and pattern. The cloth used for this is coarse and heavy and its ironlike wearing properties are its chief recommendation to the users. The most popular type is brought from Italy, and there are many patterns and colors, usually dark.

A general idea of the importance of the local industry in the Argentine shirt market is given by the fact that, according to an industrial census recently completed, the Republic's total production of shirts, collars, and cuffs amounted in value to $2,261,122. Allowing that half of this sum, which is a high proportion, was for the manufacture of collars and cuffs, the great disparity between the import figures and those for home production clearly indicates the favorable position of the locally made article.

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COLLARS AND CUFFS.

Notwithstanding the heavy duty on foreign-made collars entering this market, annual importations amount to nearly $100,000 in normal times. This figure does not take into account another $100,000 worth of paper and celluloid collars imported annually. Nevertheless, there are probably 10 collars manufactured in the country for every 1 imported, as the local manufacturers have not been slow to take advantage of the ample protection afforded them in the high customs duty collected on this article. Most of the collars of foreign origin sold on this market come from England. The Austrian cotton collar so largely sold in some of the neighboring Republics is not widely sold in Argentina on account of the people's firm preference for a linen collar. Most of the collars brought from England are made from linen. They find a market among the Englishmen resident in the country and those who can afford the highest priced goods generally. The prices for such collars range from $4 to $5 per dozen. The public has been accustomed to wearing linen collars only, and insists on having such a collar without realizing the difference between a high-grade cotton article and one of real linen. Dealers and manufacturers trade upon this peculiarity, sometimes to the extent of labeling their cotton collars "linen." It is stated that this was one of the reasons a large American collar manufacturer failed to succeed in this market, as he would not misbrand his product, which was a cotton one.

SPECIAL FEATURES OF THE COLLAR MARKET.

A very heavy weight, four or five ply collar was formerly popular here, but it is being displaced in the public preference by a lighter two or three ply article. The lighter collar is more pliable and stands the rigors of laundering better than the heavier type.

The sizes of collars for sale in this market should be marked in centimeters or in both inches and centimeters, as the consumer does not generally understand the American standard of measurement. The height of the collar should also be expressed in centimeters. In placing marks in collars, however, the manufacturer or exporter should remember that the dealers are very much opposed to handling a trade-marked line. This is because there are likely to be several other dealers, possibly within the same block, handling the same line, and he must sell the article at the same price they do, even though his overhead expenses, etc., be greater than his competitors. If the collar is left blank, or better still his own brand placed inside, he can always fall back on the argument of superior quality when a customer suggests that he can obtain a similar article at a cheaper price. Little or no "manufacturer to consumer" advertising is done in Argentina in the wearing apparel lines, although it so happens that collars are the one line that has been so advertised to a limited extent. This advertising has taken the form of featuring a patented buttonhole, reinforced by a cord. The collar is advertised under the trade name of "Tres V. V. V.," or three V's. It is made on a special sewing machine, which is, however, a patented machine of the Singer Sewing Machine Co. This has aroused considerable dissatisfaction and discussion among the other local collar manufac-

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turers, who are using the same machine and making practically the same buttonhole, but who had neglected or considered unnecessary the patenting of the process. It is doubted that the firm now holding the patent rights on this reinforced buttonhole will be able to maintain their claim if their competitors decide to make a test of its validity. The incident, however, has more than justified any expense because of the publicity obtained through it.

STYLES AND PRICES.

The styles of collars worn in Argentina correspond more or less closely to those of the United States. Here the majority of the collars seen on the street are of the double or fold type. Many of the standing or single collars are also used, the proportion being about three double collars to one single one. Neither the high, choker style nor the very low fold collar is popular, the greatest demand being for those 2 to 2½ inches in height. In the fold collars both round and square pointed types are common, while a collar with a long point has enjoyed popularity during the past year. The white collar with an invisible stripe woven into it is not known and has never been offered to the public here. It is thought that this type would prove popular if it were properly introduced. The wing collar for everyday wear enjoys a good demand and is popular for use with formal dress, much more so than in the United States. As in America, many styles are offered the customer in wing collars, some with round corners, some square, military types, closed and semi-closed forms, etc.

Soft collars are worn to a considerable extent, although the better class confine their use to occasions of sport. With the class to whom expense is a consideration the soft collar is highly approved. It costs less in the first place, and subsequent laundering is cheaper than for an ordinary stiff collar, and it also stands the process better. Soft collars are preferably of plain or figured piqué or batiste. Colors or patterns in either soft or stiff collars are not commonly seen, although a striped stiff collar to match the shirt has been fairly popular with a limited number of young men during the past season. A sample illustrating this style, together with several samples of imported single and double collars, are submitted with this report.

The local retail price of a good collar varies from $0.25 to $0.45, the average price being about $0.35. This seems a rather high price for a plain collar, even though it be a linen one, but it should be remembered that all imported collars of cotton or linen pay a specific duty of $1.20 per dozen, or $0.10 per collar. Add this to the price customarily paid for a collar in the States, plus extra costs of export packing, insurance and freight, cable, and other overhead expenses incident to doing business 10,000 miles from the factory, and it will be seen that the price asked is not excessive for an imported collar. The local manufacturer, however, protected by the high rate of duty, and with no worry about transportation charges or shipping losses, can sell far enough below the importer's price to make it an object for anyone to buy the local article, and still make a very handsome profit on his product.

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DOMESTIC PRODUCTION.

Some very fine collars are made locally of both cotton and linen. ne former are not infrequently marked "linen" to facilitate their le, but as cotton collars they compare favorably with those pro- ced anywhere. One of the peculiar features about the local market that it demands collars with a glossy finish. This is, of course, en- rely contrary to American ideas, but here a collar must have a gh polish to sell well. This point has been an obstacle to the push- g of American collars on this market, since the American manu- cturer does not care to change his system to make the brilliant nish required by the Argentine buyer. Collars made by the domes- c factories are machine cut and finished, and some very "clean" ork is turned out. There are no factories of importance here de- oted exclusively to the making of men's collars, but several of the rge white-goods establishments make it one of their leading ac- vities. In addition to this, at least three of the big department tores manufacture the greater part of their stock in this line. One f the leading stores keeps five clerks continuously employed in the ale of collars alone, and this force is supplemented on Saturdays nd sale days. A half dozen samples (Nos. 29 to 31 and 33 to 35) of ocally made white collars accompany this report. They represent ypes most commonly sold in the market and fairly illustrate the xcellency of the domestic product. The price of these collars at etail was $0.34 each.

The stiff white collar is one of the articles that suffers most through he laundering methods prevailing in Argentina. The expense for laundry work is relatively high and the result generally unsatis- factory, particularly from an American point of view. If the laun- dering is done by the family washerwoman, the cost is about 44 cents per collar, but if sent from a hotel the charge is usually about 10 cents each, and the collars invariably come back with a brilliant polish, regardless of its previous finish or reiterated instructions to the laundry woman. This high charge has some effect in popularizing the use of soft collars, since they cost less to launder and the process of cleaning and ironing is not so destructive as with the stiff collars.

CELLULOID AND PAPER COLLARS.

Celluloid collars were imported into Argentina in the last normal trade year to the extent of 46,261 dozens, valued at $26,097, of which Great Britain and Germany furnished slightly more than $18,000 worth, while the United States sent $5,848 worth. A few celluloid collars are manufactured in the country, but the industry is unde- veloped and in no way controls the local market. In 1915 imports of this type of collars had fallen to a value of $3,328, the trade being about evenly divided between the United States and Great Britain. This indicates a dearth on the market, since the domestic produc- tion is not sufficient to meet the national demand. The use of cellu- loid collars in Argentina is entirely for reasons of economy.

Before the outbreak of the European war paper collars to the astonishing value of approximately $50,000 were annually imported, almost exclusively from Germany. Since then, as no other nation seems to care much about this business, importations have fallen to

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very small proportions. Some American paper collars have been imported to take the place of the missing German article, and they compare favorably in quality and appearance with the latter. More of them could undoubtedly be sold here if an effort was made to do so. As with the celluloid collar, their use is confined to the class who can afford no better. They retail for about $0.06 and are thrown away after being worn and soiled. Samples of paper collars of both the standing and double type (Nos. 40 and 41) are forwarded with this report. They were made by the German house of Mey & Edlich, of Leipzig. The "Mey" brand of paper collars and cuffs is generally known in South America.

MARKET FOR CUFFS.

A specific duty of $1.93 per dozen pairs on all cuffs of cotton or linen material has limited annual importations to only 3,904 dozen pairs, valued at $13,185, while the increasing popularity of the negligee shirt with soft or stiff attached cuffs accounts for the gradual diminution of even these small figures. About two-thirds of the import business in linen cuffs was formerly held by England, the other third by Germany. Since the war practically all imports come from England, but they have fallen to $2,150 a year. To fill the slight gap caused by the reduced imports, the native manufacturers have increased their production of high-grade cuffs sufficiently to prevent any inconvenience to the local buying public. Owing to the strong protection afforded them, they have always controlled the national market, and they make cuffs of relatively excellent quality.

Except in the very cheapest grade of cotton goods, all cuffs sold in Argentina are white. As with collars, the lighter weight cuff has superseded the clumsy five-ply type commonly used a few years ago, and the neater round corner is generally preferred to the square-pointed style. Nearly all detachable cuffs are of the reversible type. The local public desires to be offered only linen goods, although it frequently gets cotton stamped "linen," or if the cotton is especially fine, the form is varied to "pure linen." The ideas regarding the proper finish on collars holds good for cuffs, and only a high polish is acceptable.

Locally made cuffs may be bought for as low as $0.25 per pair, but the better qualities cost $0.40 or $0.45. Imported English linen cuffs are advertised to sell at $0.55 and $0.60 per pair.

Celluloid and rubber cuffs are worn in Argentina, but the customs import statistics do not indicate to what extent they are imported. As is true with the celluloid collars, only the poorer classes buy the celluloid or rubber cuffs, and in the large cities the better stores do not carry them. Even Gath & Chaves, the most complete department store in South America, refers inquirers for this class of goods to the special stores in the city handling the line. They are usually carried by stores specializing in rubber goods such as tennis shoes, rainproofs, etc., and by the "general stores" or bazaars.

Paper cuffs are worn to a less degree than are collars of that material. They are usually sold by the dozen pairs, retailing at from $0.90 to $1 per dozen. Nearly all the paper cuffs seen were in

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designs and colors, having a dot or stripe. They are made in varying styles to correspond to the prevailing mode in linen cuffs, and are ordinarily of the reversible type. Naturally these paper cuffs find their market among the poorer classes and are not carried in stock by the important stores.

PACKING AND LABELING.

In packing white collars for shipment to this market the American manufacturer may be governed by the usual practice in domestic consignments, since this method appears to be acceptable to the local dealer. This, of course, applies only to the immediate container; no sane firm would think of starting an export shipment of collars on their long and exposed journey protected merely by a pasteboard carton or a flimsy packing case or crate. It would simply be inviting disaster. Since collars are dutiable by count and not by weight, special pains may be taken by the exporter in making up his package in as attractive form as possible, always with regard to economy of space, as freight charges on the shipment will be made on the basis of bulk. It would probably not be advisable to put more than a dozen collars in a carton of the standard size commonly used in America, as the whole roll of collars should fit easily and without crowding or jamming in the box. Otherwise one or two of the collars at the outside of the roll are likely to arrive misshapen and wholly unpresentable for sale without previous pressing or laundering. As is customary in the States, a label on the outside of each carton should describe the contents, give size and height of the collar in centimeters, and the brand, preferably of the local dealer.

CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Duties on collars.—Cotton or linen collars for men or children are subject to a special customs duty of $1.20 per dozen. Paper collars in any form pay a duty of $0.30 per hundred. Customs duties amounting to $0.60 per dozen are collected on rubber collars, while the tariff on celluloid collars is $0.15 per dozen.

Collars with one or both sides of cotton cloth, lined with paper or cardboard composition are subject to a duty of $0.04½ per dozen.

Duties on cuffs.—Since the customs duties on cuffs are specific, or based on numbers, the remarks made on the packing of collars apply equally to cuffs.

Cotton or linen cuffs, or mixtures of these materials, in any form pay customs duties amounting to $1.93 per dozen pairs.

Paper cuffs pay a customs duty of $0.43 per hundred cuffs.

Rubber cuffs pay a duty of $0.75 per dozen pairs, while celluloid ones pay only $0.30 per dozen pairs.

Cuffs of cotton cloth, lined with paper or cardboard composition are dutiable at the rate of $0.05½ per dozen pairs.

NECKTIES.

Prior to the war practically the only trade in American neckwear in South America was on the west coast, and even there it was of small proportions. When war broke out and supplies from Europe

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were largely shut off, it was expected that the American manufacturers of neckties would come into this market, but it is surprising to note that up to the present they have not done so to an appreciable extent. One or two of the large department stores have buyers or buying agencies in the United States who have sent down a few American ties that have given satisfactory results. Since European manufacturers are unable to take care of their trade in this line, and there is an open opportunity to do business, it is not clear why the American exporters of neckwear have not taken a firmer hold, especially in view of the genuine superiority of their product in comparison with the European. Importations of neckties are confined almost entirely to silk goods, and, while not extremely large, it is believed that with proper cultivation the figures could be materially increased. During the last normal trade year silk neckties to the value of $45,351 were introduced, France and England being the two important sources of supply. During the year mentioned the former country sent $20,224 worth of ties, while England shipped $16,013 worth. The share of the business falling to the United States for the same period was $1,459. Since the war import figures on silk neckwear show a falling off of nearly 50 per cent, and during the year 1915 only $16 worth came from the United States.

The source of silk necktie importations depends somewhat on the type. The knitted silk ties of English manufacture are popular and deservedly so. They are well made and, like many other English articles, are made to wear. They are, however, rather expensive, selling from 4 to 7 pesos ($1.76 to $3.08) each. Nor are the shapes all that could be desired, as they are often of insufficient length, and due consideration is not given to the size at the tying point.

The coloring of these knitted ties is usually satisfactory, being in plain shades and in changeable tints or quiet mixtures. The wide and startling contrasts and broad barred designs of the American knitted ties are neither encountered nor desired in this market. The artificial-silk knitted tie is not commonly seen, and the impression is that the United States can not compete in this line. Artificial-silk knitted ties are sold at from $1.05 to $1.50 each. Colors and designs should be of the same quiet tone as in the pure-silk goods.

The bulk of the business in ties is done in the four-in-hand type. In the flat or broad silks Italy is now doing an excellent business, and although the Italian ties do not contain the amount of silk to which the American is accustomed, neither in length nor in width, the goods are very well liked. As with the knitted silk ties, the colors for this class of ties are modest. In fact, this is true for all types of neckwear worn locally, the dark blues, grays, blacks, and browns in modest patterns commanding the best sales. The French silk four-in-hands are also well liked, and it is in this line that France does most of her export business to this country. Several samples of imported Italian and French silk four-in-hands of the most popular designs are submitted with this report. These ties retail in the local market for $1.50 to $1.90 apiece. The locally made silk four-in-hands, which afford strong competition to the imported article, are retailed at $0.45 to $1.25 each, depending upon the quality of the silk and the fashioning. Many of the local ties are unsatisfactory, owing to their being cut on the bias and thereby pulling out

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of shape very quickly. Nevertheless, domestic production now passes $200,000 in value annually and holds a dominating position in the market.

CUSTOMARY TRADE PRACTICES.

As the duty on all silk goods is very high and as nearly all four-in-hand ties are lined with either cotton or paper composition, it is customary to send the lining or stiffening separately in order to avoid paying high duties based on the weight of the article complete. This is a perfectly legitimate proceeding and is probably specified by the buyer when placing his order. Neckwear should not be sent in individual boxes or cartons, as the duty is based on the weight of the goods, plus the immediate wrapping, which would in this case include any fancy boxes such as are commonly used at Christmas season in the United States. If it is desired that the goods be presented in an attractive form in the local market, and the boxes are included in the selling price, they may be sent in a separate parcel and be subject to the moderate duty usually collected on containers.

The care taken by the furnishing and department stores of the United States in the handling and presentation of the tie stock is not encountered in Argentine stores. The best and highest priced goods are treated in the same manner as the cheap and inferior ones. In the morning all are hung on racks along one or two of the aisles of the store, exposed to dust from the street and the continual brushing of passing customers, and often falling to the floor in disorder. At night they are taken down and put away until the next morning. In the course of time these ties become badly worn merely from so much handling. Fortunately most of the stock is in dark ties and the signs of the rough usuage are less noticeable. Stock which in the United States would be stacked neatly and attractively in glass showcases, is here securely tied up in patseboard boxes of any sort and stowed away in dark drawers, whence it will be brought forth and box after box opened in search of some particular color or design. The best local stores are certainly not up to standard in their presentation practice in the neckwear departments.

TYPES AND QUALITIES.

Bow ties, or moños, for street wear are also a favorite type in Argentina. Bow ties are sold in both plain and fancy patterns, but generally in dark colors. A black bow with a narrow gray stripe at the tying ends was popular last year, and the type with the open ends with a narrow selvage is also liked. The practice of selling bow ties acording to collar sizes is unknown in Argentina, even in the best and most up-to-date stores. Lengths vary according to the specifications of the dealers when buying, but the average is a tie of 2 or 2¼ inches wide by 33½ to 35½ inches long. Four-in-hand ties for this market should measure at least 45 or 47 inches in length.

A considerable number of the old-fashioned, made-up ties are still sold in Argentina, though chiefly in the cheaper grades of bow ties. All the stores, however, carry fairly complete lines of made-up ties in both four-in-hands and bows. All of the ordinary patent devices for hooking such ties onto the wearer's collar button are known here.

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Several samples of made-up ties of local manufacture are submitted with this report and represent the styles and designs in common use here. Some of the four-in-hands made locally are sold for as little as $0.25, while the better ones cost from $0.75 to $1.05 each. The made-up bow ties are offered for sale in practically all of the smaller shops and even in the department stores, although the "smart" men's furnishing stores no longer stock them. This type is made up to sell as cheaply as $0.10 or $0.15 each, and from this price up to $0.50 and $0.75. In this class of ties will be found more light colors than in the ordinary run of ties worn in Argentina.

Another style of necktie quite commonly worn is the "plastron," or large, double four-in-hand cravat. These ties are sold made-up and also in the form to be tied by the wearer. The latter are similar in shape to the ordinary four-in-hand and the same materials are used in their manufacture. The feature of closely stitching the tie where it rests under the fold of the collar is not common here, nor are any of the so-called "slip-easy" appliances.

Owing to a general shortage of tie-making materials in Europe, considerable quantities of silk and cotton mixtures for manufacturing neckwear have been imported from the United States. This is a grade of silk in which the United States excels, but the business being done is on the piece goods bought by the local manufacturer and not in the made-up product.

Dress-tie usage in Argentina corresponds to that in the United States and Europe. With dinner clothes a small black satin or silk bow tie is worn, and with full dress a white bow tie of fine batiste is the proper thing. As often as not this kind of tie will be purchased ready made, with an elastic and catch or loop and hook to fasten at front or back. It may or may not be adjustable. The loose-tying, flowing bow tie, often affected by artists, is also worn here to about the same extent that it is in the United States.

Wash ties for summer wear are not so commonly used as they are in the States, probably because the men generally prefer the more somber colors in neckwear, and wash ties are usually made in the lighter colors or plain white.

Children's ties are merely a reproduction of adult's neckwear on a reduced scale. Indeed, in dress in general the children form a small edition of the grown-ups in these countries. A few Windsor ties are worn, and samples of these are forwarded with this report. They consist of a simple piece of silk hemmed on the two sides. They are of domestic manufacture and retail at a little more than $0.50 each.

Customs duties.—Cotton or linen ties pay a duty of $0.41 per pound, while neckties of wool or mixtures thereof are subject to customs payments of $0.82 per pound. Ties of mixed silk, with or without lining, are assessed customs duties at the rate of $2.06 per pound, while all-silk ties coming into the country pay customs duties of $3.30 per pound. As all immediate wrappings are included in the dutiable weight, they should be as light as possible.

MUFFLERS.

The muffler is an accessory to winter dress that is quite generally worn in Argentina, and it is found on sale in practically all the bazaars and large stores. The most popular type is a tubular woven

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woolen model, 10 or 11 inches wide by about 55 inches long. A 4-inch fringe at each end is a desirable feature, though not required by all. Of course, many of the mufflers sold are not all wool, but if they are imported the wool content should be sufficiently high to insure the dealer being able to sell them as wool. Otherwise he will be obliged to pay a higher duty than the article can stand.

Most of the woolen mufflers offered for sale are of domestic manufacture, although some are brought from England. The preferred colors are dark blue, white, gray, and vicuña, a sort of tan color. Prices for the woolen garments range from $1.70 up to $6 each, depending on the weight and quality of the wool used.

For evening dress wear, silk or imitation-silk woven mufflers are used, both for the additional warmth they impart and to keep the linen from becoming soiled. These are not generally made in the country, but are imported from abroad, and are more expensive than the woolen ones, ranging in price from $3 to $10.50 each. Popular colors in silk mufflers are light blue, gray, and white, or one of these colors with a bar of another color across the ends. They are not made so wide or so long as the woolen article, and the standards in use in the United States would prove acceptable here. Silk mufflers should preferably be finished with a fringe of the same material.

Hairy pyrenée fabric is a popular material for fashioning mufflers. Wool mufflers are sometimes made in two colors, one side being blue and the other tan, or other combinations. A muffler is known locally as a "bufanda" or a "cachecol."

Customs duties.—As mufflers are not specifically mentioned in the list of textile manufactures in the customs tariff, they would be classified as manufactured textiles in whole or in part finished, which are subject to a customs duty of 40 per cent ad valorem, plus 2 per cent and 5 per cent surtaxes added since the approval of the original law. In other words, they would have to pay duties amounting to 47 per cent of their value landed in the customhouse, which value represents the invoice price and transportation charges to the evaluating floor of the customhouse.

MEN'S UNDERWEAR.

The Argentine customs statistics do not show what proportion of the underwear entering the country is destined for men's and what proportion for women's wear, but they do show that the total imports are not very large. During the last year of normal trade, 1913, the total imports of underwear of all materials amounted to about $108,000, and this value was practically all in shirts. There was only $1,000 worth of underdrawers noted in the customs records for this period. In cotton goods, which formed the largest division, Germany easily led with $31,509, while Italy, with over $12,000 worth, came second; England and France followed in the order named. Germany furnished more of the so-called linen underwear than any other country, and the heaviest importations of woolen goods also came from that country. In fact, the German article, in both the cheap and the better grades, fairly dominated the market. Underwear from the United States has practically no sale in the Buenos

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Aires market. Since the war Germany's shipments have, of course. practically ceased, but importations from the other nations have not shown a corresponding increase, and the total figures for 1915 showed that only slightly more than a third as much came into Argentina during that year as in 1913. At the present time Italy is probably shipping more underwear to this country than any other country, and Italian goods are generally popular, especially in the semifine lines.

Underwear consumed locally may be roughly separated into two divisions—knit goods and garments made from woven materials. The latter are almost entirely manufactured in the country from cloth brought from France, England, and at present the United States, while knit goods form the bulk of underwear imports. This does not imply that there is not a considerable domestic production of knit underwear, since there is, but it is mostly of the cheap and inferior grades, the better quality coming from abroad. The annual value of the product of domestic factories making knit goods amounts to over $5,000,000, there being 55 concerns engaged in the business, according to the last industrial census. In woven goods there are also many firms engaged in making underwear for local consumption, besides a number of stores who manufacture solely for their own stock.

GARMENTS FOR WINTER WEAR.

The winter climate of that portion of the country supporting the greater part of the population of Argentina is sufficiently severe to require the use of warm underclothing. The cold is of a penetrating character, due to the moisture in the air, and only very few houses are arranged for central heating. This makes it necessary to dress warmly, with the result that those who can afford it generally wear woolen underwear in winter, while the poor people who are not able to meet the expense its use occasions are obliged to employ such substitutes as fleece-lined and heavy ribbed cotton goods.

In the past, nearly all of the woolen goods have been imported from Germany, France, England, and Italy, and some from Spain. France and England supplied the finest grades, and the other countries held their trade through certain specialties or trade preferences. When war broke out in Europe the central Empires were shut off from this market, and the allied countries were not in position to continue to supply even their own clients, much less take over the German and Austrian trade. Stocks in Argentina were pretty complete, owing to the accentuated buying of some years previous, and no actual shortage became apparent at once. The local merchants, however, were not loath to buy in this line of merchandise, and the American manufacturers have had an excellent opportunity to come into the market. That they have been slow in improving this chance is evidenced by a glance at the import statistics, which show that imports of woolen underwear from the United States during the year 1915 were nil.

One difficulty has been the difference between the American and Argentine standards in woolen underwear. In this market the prevailing demand is for plain goods of nearly pure wool; the product of the American manufacturer is largely of mixtures of varying

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degrees of wool and cotton, and usually made in ribbed goods. Several lots of the American mixtures were shipped to Argentina, but on arrival at the customhouse here trouble was encountered in many cases because the articles contained enough wool to make them subject to the collection of the same duties that an all-wool garment would have paid, but too much cotton to permit the importer to sell them as all-wool. Eventually the importer was able to dispose of his purchases at a fair profit, but only because of the fast increasing shortage of woolen goods on the market, and he can not afford to repeat the operation.

POPULARITY OF AMERICAN FLEECE-LINED GOODS.

One of the conspicuous successes for American-made underwear in this market has been with the fleece-lined cotton garment, which has to a considerable degree taken the place of woolen goods for those who can not afford to pay the prevailing high prices for woolen garments. The local production of fleece-lined underwear by no means compares with the American goods in quality. The domestic manufacturers do not seem to be able to equal the clean appearance of the fleecy lining that distinguishes the American article. Nor do the garments manufactured in the country come up to the American goods in finish. In spite of the present superiority of the imported article, it is indicated that the local product will always hold an advantageous position so long as it has the ample protection now accorded it by the customs tariff law. The average price in the United States in normal times for fleece-lined goods is less than $4 per dozen, while the duty at all times in Argentina amounts to about $5 per dozen. Add to this the transportation charges, and it will be seen that garments which in the United States retail for $0.50 each represent an investment of nearly $10 per dozen by the time the Argentine importer has received them. Thus the local manufacturer has a wide range for underselling the imported article and still making a good profit.

In the southern half of Argentina there is a limited market for heavy underwear, owing to the generally lower temperatures prevailing there. As all ports are free for the importation of foreign-made goods, the American manufacturer has a better chance there against the local producers. However, this region is very sparsely populated, having less than one inhabitant for each square kilometer, and it would probably not be advisable to sacrifice present profits for future prospects, as the free port arrangement is in pursuance of the Government's policy to encourage the settlement of these outlying portions of the Republic, and will doubtless be discontinued as soon as the population is sufficiently numerous to make the section a factor in the nation's commercial life.

The heavy-ribbed underwear common to American manufacture has not been well received in Argentina, and in fact the only real success has been in the flat, fleece-lined goods. In the fleece-lined grades there is a considerable demand for the double-breasted undershirt. These are worn by workmen who feel that they are thus doubly protecting themselves against colds or lung trouble by this practice. Such a garment is made to button on the shoulder instead of in front.

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Silk underwear is worn by the wealthy classes to a certain extent, but it does not constitute an important factor in the underwear business, importations of this quality of goods being confined to a few of the most exclusive retail stores. A popular modification of the all-silk garment is one made of mixed silk and wool. While it is also rather expensive, it is generally cheaper than in the United States. It is not a large item in the total trade.

UNION SUITS NOT IN DEMAND.

Men's union suits have practically no sale in this country, except to a few Americans and some Englishmen. This will not prove surprising to the American manufacturer of union suits who knows the history of his line in the United States. He will recall the early difficulties in convincing the American public of the advantages of their use, and that not until only a few years ago were they accepted there. Several dealers were questioned as to their opinion of the reason for the nonacceptance of the union suit, but they could merely state that the public did not seem to care for the article. This statement was invariably accompanied by a shrug of the shoulders infinitely more expressive than the expressed opinion. The truth probably lies in the fact that there has been little or no "consumer" advertising done in this line, one of the hardest to introduce in any country. The local dealer does not care to take the risk, with almost certain prospects of a loss, of stocking up with union suits which can only be disposed of by the most intensive advertising campaign. The sale of the goods would probably be spread out over a long period of time and the money thus invested could be better put into a line of straight two-piece underwear with larger and more immediate returns. The domestic manufacturers have no difficulty in selling their ordinary lines up to the capacity of their output and any surplus funds go toward increasing their production facilities. Consumer advertising by manufacturers would, moreover, be a distinct innovation in this country, and no producer has yet recognized the value of such a campaign for so difficult a line as men's union suits.

Representatives of American manufacturers of men's union suits have tried to sell the garments in this market, but without success. It is believed that a comprehensive and mutually satisfactory advertising scheme will have to be arranged between manufacturer and importer before extensive sales can be effected; or, the establishment of a local office with a small stock and equipment for a large advertising campaign might in time establish a foothold for an energetic manufacturer's product. The objection to such a proposition lies in the fact that the benefits of missionary work of this nature done by one are reaped by all. Only one solution to this seems feasible and that is a pooling of interests by the manufacturers inclined to give the project a trial. It is predicted by those who have studied the situation here that the Argentine people will in time come to like the union suit, and once established there will doubtless be a strong demand for it.

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SUMMER UNDERWEAR REQUIREMENTS.

Summer underwear when worn in Argentina is usually of light balbriggan, or made of cotton and linen fabrics. The balbriggans are light, knitted underwear of a type identical with that sold in the United States under the same classification. The European countries, especially France, Germany, and Italy, do an excellent business in this grade, and Spain's trade therein has recently picked up considerably. The very fine goods in this trade come from France; Germany and Italy send most of the medium grades, and the cheapest come from Spain. The French have been able to acquire a strong position in this market because of the fine finish and chic appearance they impart to their product.

Most of the fabric underwear is manufactured in the country, as well as large quantities of cheap knit goods. Up to the present time the so-called athletic underwear so largely sold for summer wear in the United States, has not been pushed in this market. The summers in Buenos Aires, which would be the big market for this line in Argentina, are much like those of New York, and it seems that with proper advertising a fair-sized demand could be aroused. Owing to the limited market, however, it is possible that an intensive advertising campaign might not justify the expenditure necessary to conduct it.

Up to a few years ago sales of underdrawers were almost exclusively in the full-length type, but since then the knee-length article has been introduced and is gaining rapidly in popularity. The sales of short drawers already exceed those of the old style. The latter were usually made with a 6 or 8 inch slash at the bottom for adjusting with a string or a button and buttonhole. Men's underwear in plain white is not generally liked; a neutral tint or a quiet stripe is preferred. Formerly fancy designs were demanded, but they are no longer popular. Underwear for summer use is not usually sold in suits, and for this reason there is no disadvantage in offering distinct designs in shirts and drawers. In fact drawers are more often sold in plain white than in colors.

Linen underwear is popular with those who can afford to wear it, but it is rather expensive. France supplies most of the best linen underwear, which is, however, usually made of fine lawn cloth. Germany, in normal times, is the chief exporter of the inferior grades.

COMPARATIVE FEATURES.

The local dealers criticise the full-length drawers offered by American manufacturers on account of the waist not being made high enough to suit the general public. This is because of the local custom of wearing trousers much higher at the waist than is usual in the United States, and it is desired to have the underwear correspond. As a rule, too, the European article shows more shapely lines than does the American, especially in the fashioning of the leg. For example, the leg of an American undergarment comes sharply away from the crotch and hangs straight down, while on a French garment it sheers away in a graceful manner and the lower part displays great care in fashioning, following more closely the natural form of the

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limb. The care shown in the termination of the cuffs at both wrist and ankle is another point in favor of the European manufacturers, their manner of finishing usually being much superior. Most of the European goods examined embodied the reinforced crotch, but in this they do not have any advantage over the American article, except possibly a slightly smoother finish. Another feature of the European underdrawers that is preferred by the local buyers is the method of adjusting the waistband. This is in the form of a double tab at the back, one tab bearing two or three buttons and the other a buttonhole. The proper tension at the waist is given by using with the desired button. This adjustment is referred to here as "estilo frances" (French style).

The open-front undershirt for summer wear is little used, although it is not unknown. Some of the shirts button down the shoulder, but this is not popular, except with the heavy double-breasted goods. Much fewer double-breasted garments are sold than of the ordinary type. There are also sold a few shirts without any other opening at the throat than the neck itself. The majority of this style are, of course, in the very cheapest grades and are invariably of local manufacture. Most of the undershirts sold here button at the throat in front, as is customary in the United States. The facing of this opening is frequently decorated slightly with embroidery, especially in the finer imported goods. Such embroidery is always in plain white or of the same color as the goods, and is usually confined to a polka dot or small check. Other trimming on men's underwear includes a slightly fancy cuff on the short sleeves of summer knit goods. This is usually woven into the sleeve when making the garment and takes the form of a drop stitch of a simple pattern. The same is sometimes added around the neck.

SIZES, DIMENSIONS, AND COLORS.

While the European system of marking sizes on underwear is not the same as that employed in the United States, there is generally no objection to American goods on this score. In some of the European countries the prevailing custom is to have only four sizes, these being represented by a series of crosses. For example, size No. 2 would bear two crosses, size No. 3, three crosses, etc. Sizes run from 1 to 4, or from 2 to 5, inclusive, depending on the country of manufacture. The American method is, therefore, not only clearer and more easily understood, but is more complete. In no other country in the world do the people observe so many details in dress as in the United States. This is illustrated by the many sizes in underwear offered by American manufacturers, where other countries confine themselves to a few. A peculiar demand of the Argentine importers in regard to sizes is that when ordering they desire shirts and drawers of the same size or number. For instance, with a 38 shirt a 38 drawers is ordered. As it is well known that the average man has a chest measurement 2 to 3 inches greater than that of his waist line, this is difficult to understand; but it is harder to change the custom, and manufacturers receiving orders should fill them as requested when sizes are specified in this manner. Details as to comfort in selecting sizes has not yet been brought home, to the poorer classes at least, in these countries.

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It was stated by one importer that the American undershirt contains entirely too much material, and that the excess simply means a waste in manufacturing for the Argentine market. The following dimensions, taken from the garments of a successful French manufacturer, are given as sufficient for this market:

Size.		Width across chest.		Length of body.	
French.	American.	Centimeters.	Inches.	Centimeters.	Inches.
2	38	45	17.71	75	29.53
3	40	50	19.68	77½	30.51
4	42	53	20.86	80	31.49

The foregoing measurements were taken with the shirt lying flat and relaxed on a plane surface.

In the heavy winter lines the most popular colors for underwear are gray, natural wool, white, and vicuña (tan). More of the gray and the vicuña colors are sold than of any other. Colors for summer-weight knit goods are more varied and, in addition to the colors above mentioned, include, in the better imported grades, light blues, pinks, and several shades of brown. In the cheaper lines, made in the country, the colors are more pronounced and the patterns include stripes and checks in black, yellow, green, brown, etc.

WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES.

The manner of quoting wholesale prices on underwear in America is quite distinct from what it is in Europe. Under the American system a price is put on a certain grade which covers all sizes in that grade. It is, of course, understood there that the small sizes will be bought along with the larger ones and an average thus obtained. In Europe the practice is to make a basic charge for the smaller sizes and increase this charge on a graduated scale as the sizes increase. The South American merchant is agreeably impressed with the American method of quoting a single price on the assorted sizes. In Italy quotations on woolen underwear are based on the weight of the goods.

At this time manufacturers' prices in Europe are considerably inflated, quotations on underwear having risen 75 to 100 per cent. However, even in normal times, retail prices in Argentina for underwear are nearly 100 per cent higher than they are in the United States on articles of similar quality. Freight rates, heavier operating expenses, and high duties account for this.

A fair grade of winter woolen underwear may be purchased here at retail for 15 pesos ($6.36) a suit. This price on up to 30 pesos ($12.72) are common selling prices for a suit of imported woolen underwear, while especially fine woolen suits are offered for as much as 43 pesos ($18.23). A suit of cotton underwear, made to imitate woolen goods, may be purchased for as low as 8 pesos ($3.40), but paying less than this is a waste of money if the purchaser desires any wearing value. Flannel underwear may be had for $2.50 a suit, and from this price up to $10 is the common range of values.

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Summer underwear, mostly manufactured from cotton, is naturally much less expensive. An English brand, "Aertex," of white knit athletic underwear is quoted by the wholesaler at $3.40, $3.60, $3.80, and $4 in sizes 34, 36, 38, and 40, respectively, while similar suits of a wide mesh, porous type are offered by the same dealer at $2.23, $2.33, $2.44, and $2.54 per suit, in the same sizes. A plain white cotton jersey of athletic type retails for about $1.25, while more elaborate colored shirts are offered at from $2.75 to $3 per garment. Cotton underdrawers are sold at $1.25 a pair for the short ones and $1.70 for the ankle length. White linen drawers range in price from $3 to $4.65 per garment, and a shirt of the same material may be obtained for $4. There are, of course, garments offered at much cheaper prices than these, say from $0.75 to $1 a suit, but these are manifestly of the very poorest grades and are entirely of local manufacture.

Men's union suits, or "combinations" as they are known locally, may be had at retail for as low as $1.60 for a half-length knitted cotton garment with short sleeves. A better grade, in mercerized cotton knit goods, is offered at $2.88 to $3.18, while a full-length light woolen garment for summer wear is sold for $5.70. An all-silk union suit, short sleeves and knee length, is sold for 28 pesos ($11.88).

WOOL AND COTTON MIXTURES.

Owing to the present high cost of wool in any form, and the consequent difficulty of disposing of articles manufactured entirely from that material, it is desirable at present to make up woolen underwear for this market on a basis of 60 to 70 per cent wool. The wool should be mixed with a fine grade of cotton in order that the resulting texture may have the aspect and appearance of the all-wool garment.

American exporters of underwear should take care, in sending their product to Argentina, not to ship what is practically an all-cotton garment with a very small, say 5 or 6 per cent, wool content, since such an article will have to pay as much in customs duties as it would were the wool content as high as 39 per cent. An article 39 per cent wool may readily be disposed of as a wool mixture, or even as an all-wool garment, but one based on cotton, with only a 5 or 6 per cent wool content, can hardly be sold for anything but a cotton garment, and in view of the high rate of duty which the importer will have paid, due to the presence of some wool in the texture, he can not do this and make a profit. Thus the goods are slow in moving and may have to be eventually sold at a loss. In such cases, although technically the exporter is not at fault, the dealer will probably not repeat his order. Any underwear shipped to this market and designed to be sold as wool or wool mixture should have a wool content of at least 25 to 39 per cent. Goods made up with 40 to 85 per cent of wool are also known as wool mixtures, but pay a heavier rate of duty than the class mentioned above, while woolen goods containing not more than 15 per cent of some other fiber, except silk, are classified as pure wool and pay a correspondingly higher rate of duty.

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SHIPMENT OF SAMPLES.

When importing underwear, as in many other lines of wearing apparel, the wholesaler will probably request that samples be sent at once, in order that he may give them to his salesmen and start them on the road to take orders against the arrival of the merchandise. The introduction of dutiable goods by ordinary mail is prohibited, and samples sent in this way should be very obviously without commercial value and the package marked "muestras sin valor" (samples without value).

Mutilation of samples to render them valueless is not recommended, since it doubtless makes an unfavorable impression on the dealer's clients. If the shipper entertains any doubt about his samples being of value, it would probably be preferable to send them by parcel post and, if necessary, pay the duties. These suggestions are intended for instances where the buyer has not given the shipper specific instructions on the subject. Samples may also be forwarded at approximately freight rates on a parcels receipt. Not all steamship lines have this service, and it is more in the nature of an accommodation. It originated in the desire of certain companies to facilitate the forwarding of small packages of samples for shippers.

PACKING AND CUSTOMS DUTIES.

As practically all underwear coming into Argentina pays customs duties based on the weight of the goods and their immediate wrappings, it is preferable that it come wrapped in light but strong paper instead of being packed in boxes or cartons. Descriptions of the contents should be placed on the outside of the packages for the convenience of the dealer in reselling or holding in stock. In lightweight goods a dozen garments might be packed in one parcel, but for the heavier winter goods a half dozen should constitute a package. These parcels should, of course, be packed in a strong wooden case before being shipped abroad, and, in addition, the case should be reinforced with iron strapping. It is also a good plan to line the inside of the wooden case with felt paper, which will tend to protect the goods from damage by grease or oil, should such substances come in contact with or be spilled over the case in the hold of the ship.

With the exception of one item, all customs duties on underwear are calculated on the basis of the weight of the goods with their immediate wrappings. For this reason, the light or summer-weight goods are somewhat easier to import, and in these lines it is less difficult to compete with the domestic product. It naturally has the contrary effect on heavy winter underwear, on which the customs duties not infrequently amount to more than the value of the goods. The present tariff schedule provides for the collection of customs duties on imports of knit underwear as follows: Cotton goods, $0.50 per pound, and articles of cotton and silk mixed, $0.82 per pound. Goods of wool or mixtures thereof are also subject to $0.82 duty, while wool and silk mixed pays $1.03 per pound. Linens or mixtures of linen, or its imitations, exclusive of silk, pay duty amounting to $1.17 on every pound, and if mixed with silk pay $1.65. Silk knitted underwear has to pay at the rate of $4.12 per pound.

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On woven cloth underwear the following duties are collected: For plain or hemmed cotton goods, weighed with the inner boxes, $0.37 per pound is collected. This is the only instance of the duty on underwear being based on other than the legal weight of the merchandise. For woven cotton goods, embroidered, the customs duty amounts to $0.72 per pound. On plain or hemmed linen or fine cotton, duties amount to $0.78 per pound, while the same article embroidered pays $1.03 on each pound. This latter duty is also collected on flannel or wool and mixtures thereof, except silk. Articles of silk or mixtures thereof pay at the rate of $4.12 per pound.

SUSPENDERS.

In suspenders the American product now easily dominates the local market. Prior to the war the Germans held about 50 per cent of the import business in suspenders, with the United States following next in order with 25 per cent. At that time importations amounted to more than $213,000 annually, Germany furnishing $83,948 worth and the United States $45,312, with France and Great Britain close behind. In 1915, however, the American suspender had assumed first place by a wide margin, being imported to the value of $53,440 out of a total of $86,689 brought into the country during that year; French suspenders were second in value of imports, amounting to $14,585. Probably the most widely known suspender imported into South America is one of French manufacture, the "Guyot." Various imitations of this suspender are both imported and made in the country. Generally speaking, however, the domestic article is as yet a negligible factor in the country's supply, the total annual production amounting to only $25,000 annually. There are several factories engaged in the manufacture of men's wearing apparel accessories in general, and most of these include suspenders in their activities. Some very good types are thus manufactured, as well as cheaper grades for "camp" wear.

The workmanship and finish of American suspenders is very satisfactory to the local dealers, and the form of presentation is also acceptable. One American suspender company has an agent permanently on the ground, who carries a stock and sells to both wholesalers and retailers. Other manufacturers have selling agents only, shipping directly to the importer.

The prices of American suspenders in this market compare very favorably with those placed on other foreign makes. In the relatively cheap grades an American brand at 1 peso and 90 centavos ($0.80) compares well with the "Guyot" at 2 pesos or 2 pesos and 50 centavos ($0.85 or $1.06). The latter is the usual cotton type, with a few inches of elastic at the back only. The suspenders are adjustable in length and have sliding fastenings to help take up the strain. A better grade is offered in mercerized cotton at 3 pesos ($1.27), while the silk "Guyot" sells at $1.90.

Another American suspender of well-known make sells at $2.10, while an English suspender, made in the latest club colors, is offered in silk at $1.90 and $2.75. The latter is not equal to the American model in finish.

The small stores, catering to the poorer classes, carry many lines of cheap suspenders selling at $0.21 to $0.42.

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FEATURES IN LOCAL DEMAND.

The webbings desired here for suspender wear are generally similar to those commonly seen in use in the United States. Colors and designs used in the United States are also acceptable, although a much larger proportion of blacks, especially in the "Guyot," are worn. Where designs are wanted, they are usually of a pin stripe or similarly modest pattern. Some of the latest goods from Europe, however, are shown in the colors of the leading rowing and sporting clubs in and around Buenos Aires. These have vertical bars, three in number and generally in two colors, similar to the fancy hat bands for summer use. It is believed that these suspenders will find a good sale here, as sports of all kinds are highly "de moda" (the mode) at present.

All of the various types of ends are offered, including leather, cotton loop, and rawhide, the leather being perhaps more popular than the others. The corded American suspender is, of course, widely advertised and is generally liked, although care should be taken not to employ an excess of cord in such styles, as the lighter weight is preferred. While there is considerable humidity in the air of the coastal regions of Argentina, it is not sufficient to interfere with the use of leather in the manufacture of suspenders. In some of the South American countries metal parts, unless nickel plated, rust or corrode, spoiling the leather. However, it is usually advisable to use nickel plated brass metal parts in suspender fabrication wherever the price will allow. Specimens of both suspenders and garters with corroded metal parts were encountered here during the course of this investigation.

In general, all the types commonly found in the United States are also worn in Argentina. There are elastic and nonelastic, policeman, fireman, cord, leather, and fabric suspenders. There are various forms for adjusting the lengths, and numerous devices for taking up the strain of wear, all of which are already known to the American suspender manufacturer.

Boys' suspenders.—There is a market in this country for boys' suspenders, and certain special types for their use are already represented in the local market. One important feature about this line is that where in the United States little boys of from 3 to 10 years usually wear some sort of a waist onto which their trousers button, down here even the tiniest chaps wear regular suspenders. Most of these are of the "Guyot" type.

Customs duties.—The customs duties on suspenders imported into Argentina are calculated on the value of a dozen pairs. This allows the American manufacturer to take advantage of the attractive forms of presentation to which the United States market is accustomed and which has been favorably received here. The actual duties on the various types are as follows: Cotton suspenders, with or without elastic, $0.62 per dozen; with a design in silk, $1.54 per dozen. Suspenders of silk or silk mixture pay $3.09 per dozen, while leather suspenders are dutiable at $1.54 per dozen. Suspenders for boys are subject to customs duties amounting to one-half the foregoing rates in each case.

Investigation demonstrates that the American position in the local market with regard to suspenders is all that could be desired.

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If the American manufacturers will take the care in soliciting and caring for the trade that they ordinarily display in their home market, there is every reason to believe that they will retain most of the present business here in suspenders.

BELTS.

Men's imported belts constitute a small proportion of the wearing apparel business of Argentina, total imports for the last normal trade year amounting to only $20,531, of which about two-thirds were designated leather belts and the remainder of cotton. In the cotton goods, including elastic and semielastic belts, Germany led in the amount of imports, while in the leather-belt trade England and France practically divided the business. Imports from the United States were negligible, totaling slightly more than $450. Since the beginning of the war, belt importations have fallen to approximately one-fifth of the above amount.

As a means of support for the trousers, belts are much less used in this country than in the United States. Here their chief purpose is either for adornment or a carrier for watch and money, etc. As it is customary to wear trousers with a very high waistline, the use of a belt for supporting them is not practicable and suspenders are ordinarily employed.

Many English belts have hitherto been sold in this market and they are quite popular. They are usually made much wider than the American belts, but are of good workmanship. They are made of bridle leather or ooze, without pockets or holsters, and unlined. There are frequently metal rings at the sides, and the buckle in front is invariably of metal, nickel plated, and heavy. The Spanish, French, and Italian belts are more or less alike in style and workmanship. They are more often made with pockets, and some of them are very clumsy appearing affairs. Buckles are usually of metal.

A gray ooze leather narrow belt of English manufacture is offered for $1.60 in one of the smart retail shops, while other prices are $1.48 for a brown-lined belt, $1.05 for a plain white leather English belt of cheap workmanship, and $2.33 for a finer belt of similar type. A cheap elastic cotton belt of local manufacture sells for $0.43, while a better imported article of the same style is offered for $1.30 to $1.90. A handsome braided leather belt of English make is sold at $1.90. In each case the buckles are of the ordinary tongue type and of metal.

American leather belts (cinturones Norte Americanos) are now frequently seen in the show windows of the local merchants, and one of the best stores offers American leather belts for $1.48 to $1.90 each.

Considerable numbers of leather and web belts are made locally, the latter being almost entirely a locally manufactured product. The finer grade of webbing that is popular for summer use in the United States is not to be found in this market.

The cloth belt, also frequently worn in the United States with summer clothing, is unknown here, as is the belt made from the same

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material as the suit. Imitation leather, which is finding its way into popularity in North America, is practically never seen here, except in the few belts that come from the States. The combination leather and rubber type of belt used in the United States is also a novelty in Argentina.

From the foregoing it may be judged that the market for belts in Argentina has seen little development in other than straight leather belts or belts of cotton weave.

SUPERIORITY OF AMERICAN GOODS.

Recently some American belts have been brought in, but it is difficult for the American manufacturer to meet the local requirements regarding widths, pockets, etc. The typical American narrow belt has not been accorded an immediate popularity, but it is growing in favor and will undoubtedly increase in use. Probably the best way to get the local belt business is to furnish the styles of belts desired, as nearly as possible, and at the same time encourage the dealers to try out a few of the standard American numbers. It is believed that in this way the advantages of the American belt will come to be appreciated and the use of it more general, gradually displacing the old-style articles.

Sizes.—European and local manufacturers confine themselves to very few sizes in the making of belts, and the wearer is left largely to his own devices in the matter of adjustment. The very complete sizes furnished by American manufacturers should produce a favorable impression on the local buyers as soon as the goods are more thoroughly introduced. It is preferable to have all sizes expressed in centimeters, as the metric system is the standard of measurement for the country.

Buckles.—As in so many other lines of wearing apparel, the United States has gone further in regard to details in belt manufacture than any other nation. As stated above, the buckles on belts offered here are almost always of nickel-plated iron or steel, whereas in the United States a dozen different finishes are given the steel, such as gun, nickel, bronze, rubber, various enamels, oxidizing, copper, etc. The American buckles of pearl, celluloid, etc., would be novelties here.

PACKING AND CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Packing.—The local trade is not particular on this point, and the usual American method of packing six or a dozen belts in a package is acceptable. The dealers are, however, accustomed to ordering belts assorted in sizes and colors to the box if they wish it, and they frequently do. It will therefore be a hardship for the American manufacturer to accept an order for a gross of belts in black and tan, assorted in colors and sizes to the box. The importers here sell in small quantities to such retailers as wish a stock assorted both as to color and size without a heavy investment.

Customs duties.—Customs duties on belts imported into Argentina are collected on the basis of the value per dozen. Cotton belts, with or without elastic, pay duties amounting to 32 per cent on an arbitrary valuation of $1.50 Argentine gold ($1.45 U. S. currency) per dozen.

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Belts of linen, wool, metal, or leather which may be qualified as "ordinary" are subject to customs duties amounting to $0.62 per dozen. Belts similar to the foregoing, but of a sufficiently good quality to be classified as "fine," must pay $0.93 per dozen in customs duties. Ordinary silk or mixed silk belts pay duties of $1.25 per dozen, while fine silk belts are taxed $1.86 per dozen.

It should be remembered that, although the duty is based on the dozen belts, legal and gross weights of a shipment of such goods should be given on the commercial invoice, as certain other charges at the port are based on weight or volume.

PUTTEES AND LEGGINS.

Cloth puttees are not an article of general wear in the Argentine country districts, and as a rule it is only the foreigners who use them at all. Leather leggins, however, are commonly used by overseers, superintendents of farms and plantations, etc., but the owners themselves and those who can afford them wear high leather "camp" boots. Ordinary cattle punchers and peons wear alpargatas, a type of combination canvas and rope shoe, the ankles and lower part of the leg being protected by the wide baggy trousers which they wear. These trousers are known locally as "bombachas." They are tied around the ankle with a tape. The major portion of the leggins used in Argentina are made in the country, the leather manufacturing industry being one of the oldest and best developed. Some leggins are brought into the country from England, but always in relatively small quantities. The duty on rubber or waterproof cloth puttees is $0.68 a pair, and on wool ones, $1.24 per pound. Leather leggins in general are dutiable at the rate of $0.93 per pound. Prices asked for leggins range from $5 to $10.

Cloth spats are worn to a limited extent in Buenos Aires. Styles conform to those generally in vogue in England or France, which countries are the sources of the few imports in this line. Soft kid spats are also popular for dress wear. Colors desired in spats include black, white, and shades of tan and gray.

MEN'S HATS.

Importations of men's hats, exclusive of caps, for the last normal trade year, which was 1913, amounted to $585,037. The value of the domestic production during the same year was $3,653,576. Thus, 86 per cent of the men's hats in the Argentine market during 1913 were made in the country. Owing to greatly reduced importations since the outbreak of the European war, and the consequent stimulus to local production, it is probable that more recent figures would show an even larger proportion of locally manufactured hats. These figures will suffice, however, to indicate the strong position of the native industry in this line.

Eighty per cent of the total import business was about evenly divided between Great Britain and Italy. France followed in value of shipments, while the United States was fourth with 4.8 per cent of the total. In felt hats Great Britain led slightly over Italy, while Italy sent straw hats to the value of $140,331 against shipments

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from England of $127,513. Practically all of the high or silk hats imported came from England. The only lines in which the United States really figured were the soft and stiff felt hats, its shipments thereof amounting to $26,845. Straw hats apparently can not be shipped from America to Argentina at a profit to the manufacturer. Italy and Great Britain both have too great an advantage to permit it, the former because the special grasses from which the hats are made is a native product, and the latter on account of the free entry of those grasses and the superior sales organization already established enabling it to market hat lines generally to advantage.

STYLES COMMONLY WORN.

Men's hat wear is similar in style and appearance to that worn in the United States and Europe. Colors and designs are rather conservative than otherwise and extreme styles are not liked. Stiff and soft felt hats are the rule for winter wear and straw hats for summer. Straw hats are almost entirely of the straight-brim type, the Panama style being rarely worn except by foreigners. The bands on soft and stiff felt hats are usually of the same color as the hat proper, but this depends on the specifications of the dealer at the time of placing the order. Black is the color mostly used for bands on straw hats, although some colors have recently made their appearance. Hats are imported both with linings and without, and this point again depends upon the directions in the order.

Stiff hats, or derbies, are popular in Argentina for winter wear. Black is practically the only color worn. Such well-known English makes as the "Glyn," the "Christy," and the "Way" are offered by the hat stores in the current season's styles. Prices for derbies range from $3.80 to $6.35 for a good English model, while in the most exclusive stores, Stetson hats are sold for $8.50 to $12 each. At present only the heavier and medium-weight stiff hats are being offered on the Buenos Aires market, the so-called American "featherweight" derby seldom being seen. English styles govern the stiff-hat fashions.

Soft hats are worn in Argentina in about the proportion of three to one as compared with derbies. The local manufactories have made especial headway in this line and turn out a very presentable soft hat which retails for from 3 to 12 pesos ($1.25 to $5.08). They do not compete in the best grades. The recognized best soft-hat value offered by Argentine retailers is an American-made hat now being sold at slightly more than $10. The Italians, however, dominate the market for imported soft hats, the well-known Borsalino being the most accredited mark. This brand sells for $4.50 to $6.50 in the better grades. It is reported that this season's shipments of Italian soft hats have been generally unsatisfactory to the Argentine dealers, who in several instances have had to offer the stock at a loss to dispose of it. This is due, no doubt, to the difficulty on the part of Italian manufacturers in obtaining materials. A wider range of colors is permitted in soft hats, and black shares its popularity with gray, pearl gray, and brown.

There are a few other lines of hats worn in Argentina, but the total consumption is not large. The top hat is used to about the same extent that it is in other countries where evening clothes are the

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standard for formal dress. A good silk hat costs from $8.50 to $12.50. They are carried by the large department stores and the special hat shops. The soft Tuxedo hat is uncommon.

Some cloth hats are imported, and are worn chiefly by foreigners for games such as golf, tennis, etc.

Sizes of hats are usually given in both the metric and the English systems, although the latter is very well known to the merchant.

Retail hat merchants in Argentina place their orders for winter stocks in August, September, and October, for shipment in January and February. The goods should thus arrive in March and April, which months correspond in weather conditions of September and October in the United States. Summer goods are ordered six months later.

PACKING AND DUTIES.

Large cases should be used for the shipping of hats, owing to their light weight and considerable bulk. Incidental expenses are appreciably lower in importing a fairly large lot in one case than in entering the goods in two. Three-quarter inch, well-seasoned lumber should be sufficiently heavy for the packing cases, but they should also be well strapped with iron. It would be well to line the outer case with waterproof paper as a protection against humidity in passing through the Tropics. As duties on most of the lines are specific, proper precautions against loss or damage may be taken without running any risk of subjecting the importer in Argentina to the payment of excessive duties.

The customs duties on the most important lines of men's hats are in effect specific. Wool felt hats, whether soft or stiff, pay $0.337 each. Finer soft and stiff hats of nutria, beaver, hare, vicuña, etc., are dutiable at $0.965 per hat, and high hats pay $1.93 duty each.

MEN'S AND BOYS' CAPS.

A fairly large quantity of men's and boys' caps are annually imported into Argentina. During the year 1913, 28,776 dozens were brought in, having a value of $102,825. Most of these caps came from Great Britain, which furnished $47,450 worth. Italian caps were second on the list, about $20,000 worth being imported. Germany and France sent something less than $10,000 worth each, while from the United States were imported $1.269 worth. A great many more caps are worn in Argentina than these statistics indicate, as the domestic production is large. Most of the caps are of the ordinary cloth type commonly sold in North America for summer wear, although a small quantity of the Spanish "boinas" are brought in for the use of settlers of that nationality.

Caps in the better grades are sold by the department stores, and the cheaper qualities are handled by the smaller shops. A laborer can buy a cloth cap for 50 centavos to 1 peso ($0.21 to $0.42), while a finer article for yachting or sports may cost from 5 to 10 pesos ($2.12 to $4.25). Visored yachting caps are sold in white duck or blue serge, while most of the street types are of wool, serge, mixed cotton or silk and in greys or blues. They are usually lined.

Customs duties.—Duties are collected on the basis of a dozen caps, a cheap article of cotton or other similar material paying $0.68 per

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dozen, while better ones of wool, etc., pay $1.81 per dozen. Children's silk embroidered velvet caps or bonnets pay $18.10 per dozen; plain silk or velvet ones, $4.54 per dozen.

Other hats pay customs duties more or less on a specific basis. Panama hats or imitations thereof are subject to duties of $27.20 per dozen; hats known as Manila, Ratín, Bangkok, Palma, etc., of ordinary grade, $4.54 per dozen; if of a fine quality, $6.81 per dozen. Fine Italian straw hats, known as Pedal or Maglina, pay $3.63 per dozen, while if only ordinary in quality they pay $1.82. Other straw hats classified as fine and known as Rustic, Sumatra, etc., pay at the rate of $2.27 per dozen; if classed as ordinary, $1.14.

Wool hats of a grade not considered better than ordinary pay duties of $1.82 per dozen, while fine ones pay $3.63. Cotton cloth hats pay $1.36 per dozen.

There is some reduction in duties if hats are imported in an unfinished state, and not a few importers take advantage of this provision. The manufacturer should not attempt this, however, unless previously directed to do so by the Argentine buyer.

After a thorough study of the question, it is believed that in men's hats the American manufacturer can successfully compete in Argentina. His market would be for the better grades, as the national production can take care of the cheaper lines.

MEN'S JEWELRY.

Generally speaking, the practice in Argentina with regard to the wearing of jewelry conforms to the North American ideas on that subject. Cuff links, collar buttons, scarfpins, fobs, chains, tie clasps, etc., which go to make up a complete set of men's jewelry, are commonly worn here. Before the war the Austrian manufacturers supplied a large portion of this class of merchandise to Argentina, and England, France, and Germany also had a share in the trade. When, after the outbreak of war, these goods were no longer available from Europe, much of the business fell to the United States. The American articles have proven satisfactory, and indications are that a large part of this business can be held after the war.

Cuff links.—Links for both stiff and soft cuffs are worn here in about the same proportion as in North America. One style which the Argentine dealer prefers, and which is not usual in any American line, is a soft-cuff link with a snap fastener that permits the eye of one button to be inserted in the cuff and snapped onto the fastener from the inside of the cuff. In shapes and designs there is no essential difference from the types popular in the United States, and in colors the only notable change is in the larger percentage of black goods, following the general scheme of dress.

Collar buttons.—The usual lines of gold, silver, and pearl in the high grades, and imitations thereof in the cheaper grades, are in demand in Argentina. Several of the popular forms are exclusively Austrian or German and are not to be seen in America. To an American these types are not considered equal in efficiency to our own, but the trade seems to want them. Among other features are the heads that snap on and off, which were discarded years ago in the United States.

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Tie clasps.—No especial comment need be made on this line, since the average line of the American manufacturer meets the demands of the Argentinians. Gold and gold-plated articles and pearl and enameled goods all find a market.

Chains.—As in America, the change from the old-style, heavy vest chain to a finer, more delicate article has occurred in Argentina.

Fobs.—Fobs of all kinds are quite popular. Goods sent in this line should be of modest design and in good taste. A flashy article will not find acceptance. The cross dress ribbon and the lapel ribbon, being new and attractive, command a fair sale.

Scarfpins.—Preferences in tie pins in Argentina do not vary widely from the most popular designs in America. Many patterns are offered in both genuine fine metals and imitations thereof. One of the most popular forms of stickpin is the single pearl.

In full-dress jewelry, ideas in Argentina conform to the practice in Europe and America. Pearl is generally worn with formal dress, and gold or sometimes black with informal or dinner clothes.

Customs duties.—Duties on both fine and imitation jewelry imported into Argentina, except when set with precious stones, are based on the legal weight of the merchandise, and for this reason all interior packing should be made as light and compact as possible. In a recent shipment, for which the Argentine customer is making a claim on the American manufacturer, imitation jewelry was so packed that the importer was obliged to pay duty on nearly 100 pounds of cartons, string, paper, etc., at the same rate that was assessed on the contents. This was on a single order. American shippers should understand that immediate wrappings include everything attaching or adhering to the merchandise when it is lifted out of the packing case.

GARTERS.

American-made goods unquestionably get the cream of the garter trade in this market. Two of the leading manufacturers in the United States have their representatives on the ground at all times, carrying full lines in stock and serving both the retail and the wholesale dealers. They do considerable local advertising and their goods are to be found under their own brand in almost every store. Average annual imports are in excess of $30,000 in value, the figures for the last normal trade year being 52,928 dozen pairs, valued at $36,376. Considerably more than half of these imports were of silk goods, and the rest of cotton. During the year referred to the United States sent to Argentina garters valued at $12,943, of which $5,852 were cotton goods, and $7,091 in silk or silk mixtures. France was second with a little over $10,000 worth, while Germany shipped about $5,000 worth. Local production in this line has been negligible in amount up to the present, the latest industrial census of the Federal capital noting only one firm engaged in the manufacture of garters. As this firm devoted part of its activity to making suspenders, it will be realized that its annual output, amounting to about $21,000 and including both suspenders and garters, has little effect on the market. There are probably other firms who make a few garters as side lines, but the aggregate would amount to but a small figure at best. So far, in this line the foreign manufacturer holds the field.

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REQUIREMENTS IN MEN'S WEAR.

The bulk of the garters sold in this market retail for about 1 peso a pair, or $0.43 in American money. There are plenty to be found at $0.65, and a number of cotton garters are disposed of for about $0.35. These are the garters commonly selling for a quarter in the United States and include the lower priced grades of several well-known marks manufactured there. Most of the goods offered in cotton have a mercerized finish, since this gives a much better appearance than plain cotton, without the cost of silk. The colors offered are practically the same as those generally sold in the United States, and there is no necessity for changes in this regard.

Leather garters, which have some sale in America, are seldom or never seen here. They would probably not prove popular, owing to the local prejudice against a heavy garter. For the same reason the double-clasp article finds only a small sale, and too much cord will prove objectionable in the corded types. Garters with celluloid fittings are unknown to the trade here.

The metal parts of garters for this market should, wherever practicable, be protected against the humidity of the local climate. As the garters must pass through the Tropics en route to Argentina, there is also a possibility of the rubber deteriorating, and precautions should be taken against this when packing the goods. An oiled-paper lining in the case would probably be sufficient for this.

Many of the local manufacturers buy their webbing, as well as the metal parts, in the United States. The widths of the webbing required here is seven-eighths and 1 inch, as in the States. Flat webbing is much more popular than the heavier corded type.

After the American garters, the French goods are the most liked, and in the year heretofore mentioned the imports of silk garters from France were slightly ahead of American shipments. At present, however, the American goods are almost four times in excess of the French, in the silk lines. The French garters were always the best sellers until the American brands began to come into the market. Of the American garters, the "pad" type is practically the only big seller in the middle and better grades. A number of wholesale houses here buy from American manufacturers, either without a mark or under their own special label, especially in the cheaper merchandise. These goods find a ready market at low prices, $0.20 to $0.30.

WOMEN'S AND CHILDREN'S GARTERS.

Practically all the women's garters worn in Argentina come attached to corsets and are, of course, sold as a part of that garment. Since the Argentine woman does not commonly wear her corset in the house, it might perhaps be thought that there would thus be a live selling market here for the round-the-leg type for home wear. Such, however, is not the case, and this article, to all appearances, is a dead number. In some of the South and Central American countries the native women do not even bother to put on stockings unless they are going out in the street, hence garters of any sort would be superfluous. In the River Plate countries the customs are not so lax and stockings are as much a part of home dress as they are in the United States. Still, garters are not worn and the stocking

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is held in place simply by making a twist in the slack of the top and tucking it down inside. The one use for women's garters is for special costumes such as a bride's trousseau or on the occasion of a girl's first communion service, when a whole new outfit is usually purchased. Garters for these events may be very elaborate and priced at from $1.50 to $3 a pair. No doubt a certain small proportion of the value of French imports relate to these goods, but most of those worn are made in the country very satisfactorily.

There is little demand for children's garters in Argentina, owing to the fact that most of the children wear only half-length stockings and no garters are needed. When long stockings are worn, they are held up by a simple band of black elastic just above the knee. These are readily made at home. For very little girls garters come attached to their corset waists.

Customs duties.—Cotton elastic garters are subject to customs duties amounting to a fraction more than $0.15 per dozen pairs, while metal garters pay $0.31. Silk or silk-mixture garters classified as of ordinary grade are assessed $0.62 per dozen pairs, while fine silk garters, in their cartons, are duitable at the rate of $1.24 per dozen pairs.

PAJAMAS.

A peculiar custom in connection with the wearing of pajamas in Argentina is that they are principally worn during the day for lounging purposes. This has considerable influence on the styles of the garments, inasmuch as the ordinary sleeping pajama is not made to meet this requirement.

One of the differences in construction necessary because of this custom is in the type of collar. The "V" neck design, which is in general use in the United States, is the least desired of any of the forms. The military collar enjoys a very fair sale, since it comes up rather high about the throat, but the most popular type, and the only one which fully meets the popular approval, is one which is quite uncommon in America. This is nothing more nor less than a turn-down soft collar, similar to any other soft collar, but attached of course, to the garment. The cut of the collar is not important, and both rounded and pointed ends are worn.

Another distinction due entirely to the use of the pajama for lounging about the house is the placing of side pockets thereon. The American pajama usually carries a breast pocket, but the local garment has side pockets, frequently in additon to the one at the breast. Since lounging and smoking go very well together, and since the native South American almost invariably uses tobacco, one of the uses for these pockets is obvious.

Men's pajamas are preferred in light, solid colors, and usually quite plain. Cream color, pale yellow, pink or blue, with a slender dark stripe, are most popular. Facings and cuffs are frequently of white or light-colored piqué, or some material distinct from the rest of the garment. Striking combinations of colors or design are not in favor.

DETAILS OF MARKET REQUIREMENTS.

Most of the pajamas are fastened with buttons, three or four in front. There is some call for frogs or loops, and the front of the

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jacket is usually trimmed to simulate this form, even though buttons are used for actual fastening. It would be well for the manufacturer to remember that on pajamas so finished, the loops or trimmings should be of mercerized cotton instead of silk, owing to the fact that silk on any garment, no matter how slight the proportion, makes for a decided difference in the customs duties on that article.

The South American will average slightly smaller in stature than the North American, but this difference is not sufficient to affect pajama sizes. Investigation shows that there is no criticism of the American sizes on this account, although sizes should be marked in centimeters rather than in inches.

All pajamas worn in Argentina are of the two-piece type, jacket and trousers. The one-piece pajama is unknown and there is nothing to indicate that it would be acceptable here. Pajama trousers are quite similar in fashion to those worn in the States, opening in the front and adjusting to the hips with a draw string of tape. They have no pockets and never have cuffs at the ankles.

Silk pajamas, or pajamas of mixed silk and wool, are worn here and very well liked, but the proportion of the population that can afford this type is extremely limited. Such a suit sells for $10 to $15. Woolen pajamas are also used to a limited extent and are nearly as expensive as those of silk, costing from $7.85 to $10.60 a suit. At the present time it is almost impossible to obtain all-wool pajamas in the local men's clothing stores, owing to the high cost and correspondingly small sale of the article. Flannel pajamas are popular and sell for from $4 to $6.50 and $7 a suit. The foregoing numbers constitute the goods sold for winter wear or for between seasons.

For summer wear the materials most generally used for pajama wear are cotton crépe or zephyr cloth, the style and cut being the same as for the winter garments. A suit of crépe pajamas may be bought for $3.40, while garments made from zephyr range in cost from $2.50 to $3.80 per suit. One store offers a suit of North American pajamas at the lower price, selling it under the mark "Faultless."

LOCAL MANUFACTURE.

By far the greater percentage of the pajamas sold in Argentina are made in the country. Nearly every factory making textile clothing includes a line of pajamas among its numbers, while practically all the large stores have facilities for making up their own stocks of this line. A line of American pajamas is carried by one of the largest retail houses in Buenos Aires and sells for about 7 pesos ($3.08) a suit. Many men's furnishing stores also cater to the demand for made-to-measure pajamas. A good suit of wool pajamas made to order costs about $10.60, about the same figure as for the ready-made article. The cloth used in the manufacture of pajamas has in the past been largely imported from England, especialy in the woolen and zephyr cloth lines.

Pajamas for children's wear is a line that is quite as well developed as in the adult numbers, with the difference that they are more generally used for actual sleeping purposes. The garments are, nevertheless, pretty faithful copies of the men's styles, and generally carry the same turndown collar and double pockets.

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Ladies' pajamas have never made any headway among the native Argentinians, and their use is confined to a negligible number in the French, English, and American colonies.

DUTIES AND PACKING.

Pajamas are not specifically listed among the dutiable articles in the customs tariff, but fall under the classification of manufactured articles of different materials and are subject to the corresponding duties. Cotton pajamas pay customs duties at the rate of $0.37 per pound; those of linen pay $0.78 per pound; of flannel, $1.03 per pound; of crude or "Jap" silk, $2.47 per pound; and of silk or a mixture thereof, $4.12 a pound.

In calculating the weight the customs authorities include the inner wrappings with the goods, and these should therefore be of as light a material as possible, preferably a thin, tough paper. Pajamas usually come in packages of 1 dozen each. Argentine dealers have become accustomed to ordering in small quantities and with considerable variety of numbers, and European manufacturers having met this conditon it will be difficult for the American exporter to compete in the market unless he is willing to meet the Argentine importer at least halfway on matters of this kind.

SWEATERS.

There is a fairly good market in Argentina for a good grade of men's sweaters, in both the athletic and the indoor types. Most of the sweaters now being imported from abroad come from England. They are of wool or silk and give good satisfaction. A large proportion of the national consumption is supplied by the local factories, which turn out a very creditable product in this line, although for the very best goods the dealers still look to the foreign markets for their stocks. A cleaner finish and better shapes mark the foreign-made goods. There is an excellent demand for a thick, open-throat, knitted wool sweater to sell at $8.50 to $10.50 each. Such a sweater should have a wide sport collar with pointed ends lying down on the sides in a smooth and graceful manner. A type similar to this is made locally, but the native factories do not seem able to get a good shape about the neck. The price for the native article is about $6.35. There is also a demand for the old-style, high-neck athletic sweater, and a garment running in weight about 14 pounds to the dozen would find a brisk sale here, provided prices were satisfactory.

The colors desired in men's sweaters are white, gray, and dark green or blue, while a rather dark tan, known locally as vicuña, is also popular.

The use of sweaters in Argentina is by no means confined to the menfolk. Women and children wear them almost universally, and it is rather the exception for the woman who can afford it not to have one. Among the better classes the ladies' sweater forms an article for home use, but the poorer classes use them also for street wear during the winter months. The price of the cheapest article in this line is about $5, and the price runs up to $30 or $40 for the fine silk grades. The popular price may be said to be from $10 to $15 per

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garment, and during the fall and winter seasons the show windows of the large stores are full of sweaters at these prices.

Women's sweaters are made rather long, coming to just above the knee. The throat is generally open or V shape and has a wide sport collar with pointed ends falling away on both sides. Other features are two side patch pockets and a semidetached belt of the same material. A knitted cap to match is frequently worn. Both the Shaker and the heavy-ribbed sweater is worn; the fancy stitches are not confined to the high-priced silk goods for women. Sweaters for women are long and semifitting.

Children's sweaters are similar in form to those offered for adults, except they are usually more loose fitting. Whole suits of sweater goods are popular for children's wear, as are also the tiny athletic sweaters for little boys. These are frequently made to button down the shoulder. Dark blue, green, and black are the colors most in demand for children's wear. For women the best colors are gray, purple, maroon, and vicuña.

Samples forwarded with this report indicate the preferences in men's, women's, and children's wear in this line, although only the cheaper grades were purchased. The higher-priced articles are similar in design, the difference being in the quality of the material and the workmanship. The manufacture of sweaters in Argentina has been well developed and there is at least one large firm making them for export to the neighboring Republics. The finer grades of silk and woolen goods, however, continue to be imported from abroad, although the customs statistics do not indicate the value of these imports.

Customs duties.—Sweaters are not specifically listed in the Argentine tariff, but they pay customs duties in accordance with the scale established for manufactured articles of the respective materials of which they are made. Thus cotton goods or mixtures thereof pay at the rate of $0.39 per pound; if mixed with silk, $0.62 a pound. Sweaters of wool or wool mixtures pay duties of $0.59 per pound; if mixed with silk, $0.82. Silk or silk-mixture sweaters are dutiable at the rate of $4.12 a pound. All goods are weighed with their immediate wrappings.

GLOVES.

There is without doubt an excellent market in Argentina for gloves of all kinds. The line may be divided into two classes, viz, leather goods and those of textiles, which again may be roughly subdivided into high grades and the cheaper qualities. In the past practically all the leather gloves have come from France and England, the former holding its strong position in the market on account of an ability to secure raw materials on extremely advantageous terms, and the latter partly for the same reason and partly because of the excellent reputation of English gloves generally. German control of the cloth-glove market has amounted to little short of a monopoly. The import statistics for Argentina prove this very clearly. For example, imports of cloth gloves were less in value by $92,067 in 1915 than they were in 1913. During this same period imports from Germany fell from $102,937 to $4,950, a difference of $97,987, practically the same as the falling off in total imports. Cloth-glove im-

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ports from the United States prior to the European war were practically nil, and as late as 1915 only $2,906 worth were shipped from that country.

Gloves used in Argentina are all imported, with the exception of a few cheap cloth types, which have only a very limited sale. It is one of the items in which there has been a decided shortage since the outbreak of the war. Gloves of leather are nearly as scarce as are those of fabric material. One well-known English house manufacturing kid gloves has refused to accept any orders for delivery before the end of the war, and in the fabrics neither France nor England are prepared to supply the shortage caused by the stoppage of German exports. The American merchants have not made serious attempt to get the Argentine glove business, due perhaps to the excellent business they have been enjoying at home, and to the fact that America itself has always been a heavy consumer of European gloves. Doubt as to their ability to hold the trade after the war has also deterred American manufacturers of gloves from making a strong effort to gain the market.

Total importations of all classes of gloves for the last normal trade year amounted in value to $256,366, representing about two-thirds of the national consumption of this article. The other third was produced in the Argentine factories. During the year mentioned imports of all kinds of gloves from the United States amounted to less than $1,000 in value. With the improved facilities for obtaining raw materials now available, it would seem that the American manufacturers, especially in the leather lines, are in a good position to materially increase their glove exports to Argentina.

LEATHER GLOVES.

In this class kid gloves have the largest sale in Argentina, more than 50 per cent of the imports belonging to that group. Suede, dogskin, dressed kid, chamois, and the various other types in demand in the United States are popular. For street wear, the gray chamois or "gamusa" and the tan dress kid gloves are most liked, and all the well-known English and French marks, such as Dent's, Fownes', and Perrin's, in both women's and men's styles, are stocked by haberdasheries and general stores. A pair of tan kid gloves for ordinary street wear will cost the wearer from $2.50 to $3.75 a pair. Gray antelope gloves are advertised for $3.35 and $4 a pair, while gloves of chamois range in price from $1.70 for a rather cheap glove to $5.20 for a good quality, wool-lined article. Ladies' wrist gloves average somewhat cheaper in price, costing the consumer $1.35 to $2.50 a pair, while long gloves sell for $3.20, $3.70, $4.20, and $6.25. These full-length gloves are usually of the 16 or 20 button type. In the suede gloves the several shades of gray get most of the business, although some blacks, browns, and other colors are carried also. In this line the points are usually in black or the same color as the glove.

Dress gloves are quite generally worn, the standard for men being white kid with white points, a number of white gloves with contrasting black points also being used. Both buttons and snaps are used for fastening gloves.

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GLOVES OF SILK AND OTHER FABRICS.

This is a line in which the American merchants have entered the Argentine market with decidedly satisfactory results. The merchandise they have sent has been of good quality and well served, and it will undoubtedly compete on even terms after the conclusion of the war. The silk gloves known to the Argentine market prior to the war did not have the reinforced finger tips characteristic of the American product, and the native merchant was at first strongly opposed to this feature, stating that the double tips adversely affected the appearance of the gloves. As the American manufacturers would not modify their article the Argentine buyers were obliged to take them as they were, and to-day the demand is for the American type.

All the department stores and many of the smaller shops carry fairly full lines of both fabric and leather gloves. The most popular colors are gray, black, and white, with limited stocks of other shades. The cost per pair at retail ranges from about $1 to $2.50 for short gloves and from the latter figure to $3.50 for long ones. Knitted silk gloves are also shown.

The most pronounced shortage in the glove trade of Argentina at present is that of fabric goods. Before the war the German control of the Argentine cloth-glove market was very complete. From the seat of the industry at Chemnitz came excellent imitations, in fabrics, of chamois and other leather gloves. Since the German supply was cut off some American manufacturers have tried to enter the market with their product, but so far with little success. Their difficulty seems not to be one of price or of terms, but lies in the quality and texture of the goods themselves. The glove that the Argentine market wants is indicated by several samples submitted with this report, showing the superior quality of the material used in the manufacture of European fabric gloves. If the American manufacturers can make gloves to compare in texture with these samples they will find a ready sale for them in Argentina.

Children's gloves form a fairly important item in the Argentine market. The most popular are the fabric gloves, and in these, as in the adult trade, there is a noticeable shortage in the local supply. The woven woolen glove, worn in grays and dark plaids in the United States, are seldom seen in Argentina. Some American woolen gloves have, however, been imported, and dealers state that the goods are excellent and sales satisfactory. Those that have tried the line say they will stock more plentifully another season. The market here will probably be confined to children's numbers, as the climate is hardly severe enough, except in the southern portions of the country, for grown people to use them.

SPECIAL FEATURES OF THE TRADE.

As regards design the American product seems to be satisfactory. One suggestion is offered, however. The Argentinian has a hand that is stout rather than slender and wide rather than long. This natural characteristic has not been overlooked by the German investigators in their studies of the South American glove market, and

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manufacturers at Chemnitz make up distinct types for the trade in North and South America. For the latter, gloves are made a little wider across the back, with the fingers a trifle shorter. This is, however, a detail that should be carefully studied before modifications of existing manufacturing models are made.

The size markings for gloves used for the American market are acceptable in Argentina. Children's sizes run 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 5½, while women's run in half sizes, in fabric gloves, from 5½ to 7½.

During the past season short fabric gloves have been retailing at $0.75 to $1 a pair, while long ones were advertised at $1.05 to $1.60. Germany was formerly able to quote fabric gloves at from 7 to 10 marks ($1.66 to $2.38) per dozen pairs, and kid gloves at 19 to 21 marks ($4.52 to $5). A cheap cotton glove was also exported to compete with the domestic article.

Orders for winter gloves in Argentina are usually placed by wholesalers in May, June, and July for November and December delivery, while retailers place their orders for January and February delivery in August, September, and October. Wholesale orders for summer gloves are generally given in November and December for April, May, or June delivery. Retailers place their orders in January, February, and March for July and August deliveries.

PACKING AND CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Packing.—All gloves, and especially silk goods, should invariably be shipped with as little interior wrapping as possible, owing to the fact that duties are high and are based on the legal weight, which includes the immediate container. European manufacturers frequently send silk goods in sealed, zinc-lined cases, which effectually protects the contents from deterioration on account of weather conditions and gives added protection against pilfering.

Duties.—Argentine customs duties on gloves are collected on the basis of the weight of the goods, plus their immediate wrapping. Cheap white cotton gloves, designated "for troop wear," pay $0.27 per pound. Fabric gloves of cotton, linen, or imitations thereof, $0.82 per pound; same as foregoing, lined or fleeced, $0.62 per pound. Cotton or linen gloves, if mixed with silk, pay $1.24 a pound. Gloves of wool mixture or all wool are dutiable at $0.82 a pound, and if mixed with silk, at $1.03. Silk or silk-mixture gloves pay $3.30 a pound. Leather gloves in general are subject to customs duties of $3.30 per pound, except lined goods, which pay only $2.47. Fur gloves are used to a very limited extent and are not specified in the tariff schedule. Manufactured articles of fur in general, however, are dutiable at the rate of $1.03 a pound, including weight of box.

HOSIERY.

Hosiery constitutes the largest single item of imports of wearing apparel coming into Argentina, the total value for the last normal trade year, 1913, being $2,637,011. Germany, holding the leading place in cotton, linen, and silk goods, furnished $1,855,912 worth. France came second with $460,844, about one-fourth the value of the German trade. Great Britain stood third with $132,601, while the United States furnished $60,190 worth, mostly in silk and imitations thereof.

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Practically all hosiery consumed in Argentina is imported from abroad. Cotton stockings form by far the most important item, imports in this line alone amounting to nearly $2,000,000 annually. Before the war Germany controlled the market with annual shipments totaling over $1,500,000, while about $250,000 worth came from France. Spain and Italy were also fairly important sources of supply. War conditions caused exports to Argentina from the United States to jump from $3,000 in 1913 to $487,318 in 1915. Immediately following the declaration of war in Europe Argentina and other South American countries turned to the United States for their supply of hosiery. That country had long been known to excel in silk goods and it was hoped that it could fill the breach in cotton lines left by the withdrawal of the German shipments.

UNFORTUNATE RESULTS FROM AMERICAN DYED GOODS.

The anxiety of the Argentine merchants to get hosiery and their consequent willingness to take almost any goods offered and on any terms resulted in some abuse and considerable dissatisfaction in the trade. Probably more than half of the avalanche of complaints directed against American goods shipped to Argentina at this time were directly traceable to unsatisfactory shipments of cotton stockings. That many of the protests from the Argentine buyers were justified is undeniable, but that the trouble was not wholly the fault of the American manufacturers is equally patent to those who take the trouble to consider the matter. The manufacturers in the United States, being deprived of the German dyes which they were accustomed to using, were experimenting with others and probably believed in their efficiency. Goods so dyed looked well enough for a short time after they were made up, but later would lose their appearance. Orders of hosiery which, when started on their way in fulfillment of an Argentine order, might have been entirely equal to samples shown, would, after traversing the Tropic Zone with its heat and humidity, arrive in Buenos Aires much inferior to sample. The goods were often paid for "cash in New York" or "cash against documents" in Buenos Aires, and although the customer protested loudly, the American merchant generally could not see why he should make a refund on merchandise which was apparently above reproach when it left his control.

On the spur of the moment many shipments of this spoiled hosiery were auctioned off for barely enough to cover the customs duties, but some of the shrewder buyers held the goods, and later, when prices for all-cotton textiles commenced to soar, were able to dispose of them without loss and frequently at a good profit. Thus, although the general feeling of the South American buyers of United States hosiery is not particularly cordial toward that article, the fact that stockings are now coming very satisfactorily and seem to be improving in quality, is gradually tempering the feeling against them, and while some people insist that the trade will surely turn back to Europe for its supply after the war, others are inclined to continue with their American lines until the European manufacturers can offer greater chances for profits with their goods.

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SOURCES OF SUPPLY.

Woolen hosiery formerly came and still continues to come largely from Great Britain. It is fairly popular among the Argentinians for winter wear and total imports amount in normal times to about $90,000 a year, of which 50 per cent comes from Great Britain and the remainder from France and Germany. Woolen stockings are the only type in which colors are at all in favor, and although black predominates, many mixtures and some patterns are to be found in the market. Both light-weight and extremely heavy grades are offered. At the present time woolen hosiery sells for about $1 to $1.25 a pair. General stores and men's furnishings shops usually carry a fairly complete line of men's woolen hosiery.

Lisle hosiery is a line in which the French manufacturers have attained an excellent reputation in Argentina. The stockings are invariably full-fashioned, permitting them to be made extremely sheer and at the same time strong. The finish is not equal to that of the American seamless hosiery. These goods are generally worn by the well-to-do class, and are usually offered in black.

It is in silk hosiery that American manufacturers have made the best impression in the Argentine market. In 1913 Germany shipped to Argentina silk stockings to the value of $41,600, while the United States, France, and Great Britain each furnished about $25,000 worth. Total imports for that year amounted to $118,000. In 1915, owing to extraordinary conditions, imports had fallen to $48,057, but the American manufacturers still held their own in the market with shipments amounting to $27,000, the reduced figure for the total corresponding to the smaller imports from Europe. Customs statistics make no mention of silk stocking shipments from Japan, but as a result of the recent establishment of shipping lines between Buenos Aires and that country it is probable that this year will witness the beginning of such a trade. That they will be able to compete seriously with the American goods now entering the Argentine market is not considered probable, as our goods are more than holding their own, even in the Japanese market, on account of their superior fit, style, and wearing qualities.

PREFERENCES IN MEN'S WEAR.

In men's silk hose the American practice of having the toe, heel, and top made of cotton and the body of silk has had immediate acceptance in Argentina, since it brings the price down materially, not only in the first cost but in customs duties as well. Goods bearing less than 40 per cent silk pay considerably less duty than all-silk articles. If silk is to be used for mixing with another material, however, the percentage should be sufficiently high to permit of the dealer selling the article as silk or good silk mixture. The colors desired in silk hosiery are the same as for the general lines, viz, about 75 per cent in black and the remainder in white, tan, blues, and grays. During the past season dark blue has been a very popular color. There is little or no call for vivid reds, greens, etc.

Artificial-silk stockings have been very well received in the Argentine market and they should continue to sell well. While not so

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strong as pure silk, they have a greater luster and an equal or better appearance generally and find a ready sale. They are slightly more susceptible to climatic conditions than the all-silk goods. They are almost certain to enjoy an excellent demand as soon as trade becomes more normal. Practically all of the artificial-silk goods brought into Argentina in the last two years have come from the United States.

The hosiery formerly used in Argentina was full-fashioned; few, if any, seamless goods were used. As Europe has never accepted the seamless hosiery, and as the source of hosiery supply for Argentina was European, or largely so, the reason for its not having been adopted is apparent. So far as investigation shows, there is no prejudice against seamless hose and, on the contrary, it is popular. This is especially true of men's hose.

The so-called "guaranteed" hosiery, which has been so successful in the United States, has not proven practical here and probably never will, for the very clear reason that the investment in freights and duties are not likely to be made good by the manufacturer. He might be willing to give a new pair of stockings for every pair that did not live up to his guarantee, but as the local merchant would stand to lose almost as much as the price of the article every time he replaced a pair he could hardly concur in such an agreement. It is also believed that the percentage of returned goods under such a plan would be greater in South America than in the United States. The American is generally too busy to take the trouble to return a pair or two of socks. This is a psychological fact that is not overlooked by the manufacturer when he works out his selling scheme. It would not, however, hold true in South America.

The American system of marking sizes on hosiery prevails in Argentina and no changes are necessary to meet this requirement.

WOMEN'S HOSIERY.

The customs statistics heretofore given include women's stockings, as the Argentine tariff does not differentiate between men's and women's wear in this respect. General remarks about past and prevailing conditions in the market also apply in substance to women's wear. The fashion in stockings has always called for the full-fashioned goods and it remains to be seen whether or not the American seamless stockings which have been introduced and freely used are going to replace them to a considerable extent. This seems less likely in women's than in the men's lines, since in the women's goods a more decided shape is called for and this is more difficult to obtain in the seamless goods for women than in the men's lines.

Relatively more woolen stockings are worn by the women in Argentina than in the United States. This is due to the penetrating quality of the cold and to the fact that only rarely are homes centrally heated and it is necessary to dress warmly.

The furor for using silk for dress wear which passed over this United States a few years ago was only slightly in advance of its appearance in Argentina. Silk goods generally are popular and the percentage of women who daily wear hosiery of some kind of silk material is large. Except among the wealthier classes they are usually confined to the boot-silk stockings having 10 to 16 inches of silk and the rest of cotton, linen, or muslin. This type of stocking

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was introduced here from America and has had a large sale. The majority of those bought have been of the cheaper grades and have not given the best results, especially since most of the goods were of artificial silk. Nevertheless, the cheap price is a consideration and they will undoubtedly continue to sell in good quantities.

The colors desired in women's stockings are generally in the more modest tones to correspond with their dress in general. For winter wear black predominates, and in summer white is freely worn. Tan color is commonly worn and dark blue is also in excellent demand. Stockings in the light and fancy colors to match ball gowns, etc., are of course available at most of the larger stores and shops. Openwork stockings are not in demand and find no sale except in one or two isolated communities. In fact, very few stockings for women's wear have any lace or openwork. The garter-top type of improved American design is favorably known in the market.

Prices for women's stockings vary widely. Cheap cotton ones may be had for as little as $0.17 per pair, while imitation boot-silk stockings are offered for less than a peso ($0.42). The average price for a pair of linen or woolen stockings is between 2 and 3 pesos, but fine ones at 15 or 20 pesos are carried in stock in the best stores, although the demand for this class is perforce very limited. Prior to the war imitation-silk stockings of German manufacture were retailed in Buenos Aires for as low as $0.21 per pair. At the present time there is a shortage of stockings in the Buenos Aires market, and goods of unsatisfactory color which could not be disposed of for $2.50 or $2.85 per dozen by wholesalers a year ago, even though such a price meant a distinct loss, are now being sold at more than $4.50 per dozen pairs.

Men's cotton socks of very fair quality may be had for $5.08 per dozen pairs, and recognized American marks retail at $0.57 to $0.63 per pair. Imitation-silk goods are offered at $0.43 to $0.63 per pair, while all-silk hose costs from $1.25 to $4.25 for a single pair.

The domestic production of stockings is not extensive and is confined mostly to the very cheap types for use in the farming districts or by peons in the city. These stockings are generally of cotton and coarsely made, and retail for 8½ to 12½ cents a pair. Stripes and checks on a white base are popular in this grade. There are, of course, some stockings of a better grade than this manufactured in the country, and the local production will undoubtedly increase in the future, but at present it has practically no influence on the local market.

CHILDREN'S HOISERY.

There has been a notable shortage in the supply of children's hosiery in the Buenos Aires market since the war started in Europe. So far the American manufacturers do not seem to have been able to meet the demand for this class of hoisery. This is probably due to the fact that the Argentine child wears half-length socks all the year round and there is little call for the long stockings so generally used by children in the States. All the usual materials used in adult hosiery are in demand in the children's numbers, although the woolen sock is perhaps most popular. In colors black predominates, but there is a demand for white, tan, and a few colors. Sizes start

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from 1 to 2 years and a base price is made on stockings for children of this age. As the age and size increase the price is augmented at the rate of about 5 centavos for each year, so that a sock which sells for 50 centavos in the smallest size will cost 90 centavos (about $0.38) for a child 10 years old.

PARTICULAR POINTS FOR AMERICAN MANUFACTURERS.

Although as a type the American stocking is generally satisfactory, there are one or two points that are criticized by the local Argentine dealers. It is claimed that the women's stockings are not made large enough or with sufficient "give" at the top. This complaint arises from a difference in the physical proportions of the South American woman and her North American sister, the latter as a race possessing more slender lines than the former. The European manufacturers make allowance for this in making up goods for South America. Again, in both women's and children's stockings the termination of the American article must be improved if it is to compare favorably with the merchandise received from France and England.

For three years the American stocking manufacturer has had unparalleled opportunities to enter the Argentine market with his goods. To a certain extent he has taken advantage of them, but owing to the unfortunate circumstances previously mentioned, for which he is not wholly responsible, his product is in but little better position to-day than it was when the war started. Nevertheless, in certain grades America can compete with the world, and in general lines the American stocking holds many points of superiority. If the American manufacturer will only hold to the standard he has recently shown in serving the Argentine market it is firmly believed that the present prejudice can be overcome and a satisfactory share of the trade retained.

CUSTOMS DUTIES AND PACKING.

Unless otherwise specified by the Argentine customer, hosiery shipments should bear no interior packing beyond the very lightest possible paper, and the goods should be put up in bundles of one dozen pairs each. This is to avoid excessive customs charges, since duties are based on the legal weight of the merchandise, and the use of stiff cartons for each dozen or half-dozen pairs would add considerably to the weight on which duties are collected.

Very cheap woolen socks for country use are dutiable at $0.17 a pound, while goods of cotton or cotton with wool filling pay $0.47 on the same weight. Hose made of cotton and silk pay $0.72 per pound. The cheapest cotton goods are dutiable at $0.14 a pound, these being long, unbleached stockings for provincial wear. The usual surtax is not imposed on such stockings. Stockings of wool or mixtures thereof, except silk, pay $0.72 per pound, while the same article with silk pays $1.03. Linen socks and all others designated "linen" pay duties of $1.07 a pound, and if mixed with silk, $1.65. All stockings of silk or mixtures thereof are subject to customs duties of $4.12 per pound. Any stockings forwarded in a semifinished state pay the same duties as the completed articles in their respective classes.

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BATHING SUITS.

The only real bathing resort in Argentina is Mar del Plata, situated about 7 hours' journey by rail south of Buenos Aires. It is extremely fashionable, and only those who can afford to spend money freely enjoy going there. Many of the people living in or near Buenos Aires prefer to take a trip across to Montevideo, Uruguay, when they wish to indulge in sea bathing. A nightly service by very comfortable steamers is maintained between the two cities, and during the summer season the round-trip passage is reasonable in price.

Bathing suits as used at these beaches are distinguished for their modesty. Nothing approaching the freedom of costume usual in European resorts and not uncommon at American beaches is ever witnessed in Argentina or Uruguay. One representative who carries a line of American bathing suits has not made a single sale so far. One merchant told him that no woman in Argentina would think of wearing such a garment at a public bathing place. Even men's bathing suits must have half sleeves and trunks covering the knees, and except in those places where the sexes are separated, knit goods are prohibited. Suits must be of fabric and are generally of serge or similar material. Colors are rather moderate in tone than otherwise and solid colors are preferred to designs. Men's bathing suits may be bought for $2, while women's are advertised at $3.60 to $9.50 per suit. Silk garments naturally are priced much higher than this.

Bath robes, capes, sandals, caps, and all the accessories usual to a bathing costume, are offered at prices more or less equivalent to what is asked in the United States.

Practically all of the above-mentioned goods are manufactured in Argentina in their entirety. Some of the accessories, such as silk caps, are brought in from abroad, but their sale is negligible in the total. A high customs tariff on such goods make it difficult or impossible to compete with the home-manufactured article.

DRESSING GOWNS.

Dressing gowns, lounging robes, mourning jackets, and kimonos are universally worn by the women of Argentina. With the men the lounging pajamas take their place. Most of the articles in this line are manufactured in the country, but some of the finer goods are brought in from France. Cotton goods in this line are sold in large quantities and most of the stores carrying women's wearing apparel have many grades and varieties of styles. Lace and trimming is freely used in the manufacture of women's dressing gowns. Cotton garments are offered at prices ranging from $2 to $10, while silk kimonos are displayed at from $30 to $50 each, depending upon the embroidery, etc. Generally speaking, the styles conform to those prevailing in France. White is the color most preferred, although tints of pink, blue, and yellow also have a demand. There are several Japanese shops in Buenos Aires which carry the lines of kimonos commonly refered to as "Japanese."

Customs duties.—On women's dressing gowns duties are as follows: On plain cotton garments, $9.07 per dozen; same as the foregoing, embroidered, or with embroidered insertions or trimmings, $22.68

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per dozen. Dressing gowns of wool or mixtures thereof pay $31.75 per dozen. Those of silk, mixtures thereof, or of velvet, are dutiable at $13.60 each.

Another classification covers "robes de chambre" for women or men, manufactured from wool or any mixture therof, the duty amounting to $4.54 each.

WOMEN'S SUITS.

The value of the import business in women's suits and ready-made gowns is considerably larger than that in men's wear. During the year 1916 there was brought into Argentina $117,198 worth of this class of goods, France being the heaviest exporter with $92,107 worth. In the customs tariff women's suits are several times subdivided into linen goods, wool or mixtures thereof, velvets, cotton goods, and garments of silk or silk mixtures. The last group represented more than half of the total imports, with about $66,000 for the year 1916, France leading with $50,990, Great Britain second with $12,738, and the United States sending $772 worth. The second most important division was woolen suits, with $31,213 worth in 1916. Again France led with $25,403 worth of goods, Great Britain came second with $4,467, while the United States sent $556 of this class. In cotton dresses and ready-made suits France shipped $10,689 out of total imports of $12,404. None of this class of merchandise came from the United States. The amounts for linen goods and velvets were small and practically none came from the United States.

The trade in this line may be divided roughly into three classes, viz: The wealthier class, which consumes most of the imported goods, or when buying locally made clothes, patronizes the few exclusive ladies' tailoring establishments, where they may pay from 150 to 700 or 800 pesos for a gown, and where prices average $66 to $88 a suit; a middle class group, which purchases the bulk of the ready-made gowns and suits offered for sale by the department and ladies' specialties stores; and the poor class, which buys the cheaper grades of ready-made goods or buy the material and make the garments themselves.

STYLES, COLORS, AND MATERIALS.

There are many stores that offer women's ready-made tailored suits and gowns, wash and summer dresses, cloaks, etc. Gath & Chaves, Harrods, Tienda San Juan, La Ciudad de Mexico, and many others display attractive suits at the beginning of the seasons. Prices for tailored suits range from $22 to $44 and higher, while cloaks are sold at from $8.80 to $39.60. As with men's wear, many customers care only for a custom-made gown or suit, and there are plenty of fairly good ladies' tailors to care for this class of trade. The large department stores also have a section devoted to made-to-measure women's suits, skirts, etc. Styles follow pretty closely the Paris dictates, and the French designs are prompt in arriving in the market at Buenos Aires.

Materials most used for women's exterior clothing are serges, velvet, and wool gabardines, and the selections offered by stores and

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tailors are very complete. During the cooler seasons plain, dark colors get the bulk of the business. A great deal of black is worn, the proportion of this to other colors being much larger in the women's garments than in the men's. Navy blue, dark gray, brown, and dark shades of green are most popular. For summer wear white is more generally used than anything else, but light blue and pink get a good share of the sales.

Gowns and suits are usually made with some kind of applied trimming, unless they are to be used for mourning. For this purpose are used braid, soutache, tassels, buttons, and, in the winter, fur. The greater part of the business in women's wear of this class goes to the domestic manufacturers, the imports representing little more than those articles brought in at the beginning of a season to serve as models for the making up of complete lines.

Customs duties.—The duties on women's suits entering Argentina are figured at so much per garment. Adequate precautions against loss by theft or damage to the cases may therefore be taken without unduly increasing importing charges. On a linen suit customs duties amounting to $13.60 are collected, while on one of wool or a mixture of wool they are $18.14. Import duties of $45.35 are levied on a velvet or plush suit, whether or not it carries trimmings, while on one of silk or a mixture thereof $36.28 is the amount of the duty. On a suit of cotton goods $5.44 is collected. Woolen or wool-mixture cloaks for women's wear are assessed $2.27 each. Coats of velvet or silk plush pay $11.34 each, while silk cloaks pay $4.54.

Most of the importations of women's coats or cloaks are from France. In 1916 that country sent $48,527 worth out of total importations of less than $55,000. The largest shipments were in woolen goods, the number of woolen coats shipped from France being 6,217 as against 1,108 silk ones and 274 of velvet. The United States sent 38 women's coats, mostly of wool.

CHILDREN'S SUITS.

Except for the single item of woolen overcoats, the importation of children's ready-made clothing is almost negligible. Three hundred and seventy-eight garments, valued at $2,736, represented the children's sack suits in wool shipped from Great Britain, France, and the United States in 1916, nearly all of them coming from the first-named country. Children's overcoats show slightly better results, France sending 7,115, worth $18,136, Great Britain 1,438, worth $3,637, and the United States 64, valued at $154. The remaining imports of this type, including suits of other material, coats, separate trousers, etc., total hardly $2,000 in value. The duties on children's clothing under this heading are one-half of the amounts collected on clothing for adults.

The reason for the small importations of children's ready-made clothing is that it is made in Argentina by factories employed in the manufacture of similar lines for adults. For the cooler season, boys' ready-made clothing is offered by the stores in woolens and other winter-weight textures. The suits are generally replicas on a small scale of the ordinary men's styles, except for the short trousers. Three-piece suits are the rule. For summer wear more latitude is allowed the small boy in what he may wear, and many wash suits,

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consisting of blouse and bloomers, are advertised. Instead of the dark, plain colors, appear light materials in fancy colors and stripes. Sailor suits for both winter wear and the summer season are very popular. Summer suits in various styles sell for 3 or 4 pesos ($1.32 to $1.76), while fine serge suits for winter cost from 12 to 20 pesos ($5.28 to $8.80).

Little girls wear light wash dresses in both plain and fancy patterns. The stores offer practically unlimited designs in ready-made goods of this class and at a wide range of prices. Most of these dresses are made in the country, either in special factories or in the workshops of the retail stores. Materials are also of a wide diversity, including muslins, prints, brins, voiles, etc. The market in Argentina in this line is undoubtedly for the materials rather than for the finished articles. American cotton prints are at present being largely used, and it is probable that they will stay on the market, as they are found satisfactory.

BABIES' WEAR.

There is a market in Argentina for the better grade of goods for dressing the baby. This includes such articles as fancy bonnets, tiny sox, knitted shoes, fleece-lined cloaks, and knit goods generally for babies' wear in the better class of merchandise. These articles for babies are found ready to wear in dozens of stores throughout the cities and towns of Argentina. The different items of wear do not vary greatly in cut and use from those worn by babies in the United States. The only important article known to the American baby and as yet rarely seen in Argentina is the "romper." People still dress the babies and small children in an overskirt and several undergarments. The romper, however, being more generally used for play, falls into the classification of cheaper wear, and if introduced would probably not long remain an object of importation. Knit goods are in especial demand at this time in Argentina. Ignorance as to what the American manufacturers can produce in this line is the chief reason for the present small proportions of the business coming to the United States. One importer stated that he would be glad to pay for a complete line of the knit-goods products of some American factory as samples of the work.

WOMEN'S HATS.

In normal times women's hats are imported into Argentina to the extent of over $200,000 worth annually, the figures for 1913 being 27,291 dozen hats valued at $205,272. This represents only a small fraction of the women's hats sold throughout the country, domestic industry supplying the remainder. French hats have always been the most popular, and in the five years ending with 1913 that country sent 53,808 dozens, having a value of $575,463. During 1913 France's shipments amounted to 16,012 dozens, having a value of $148,371. Italy and Great Britain followed in order with slightly over $25,000 worth for the former and a few hundred dollars less than that amount from the latter country. The British hats were, however, of a better grade, as they numbered only 3,488 dozens against 6,281 dozens from Italy. The United States sent $40 worth during the same year.

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Women's summer hats are generally of either lingerie or straw, in both light and dark colors. In the winter season felt, beaver, and other heavier materials are worn. Ribbon is extensively used for trimmings, light-weight fancies in the summer and heavier velvet material in winter. Flowers and fruit are sparingly employed in either season and feathers are more popular. Fur trimming is also desirable for winter styles. Styles and shapes are changed annually, as they are in the United States, although some form of turban or sailor generally remains the basis for the season's fashion.

Average prices for women's hats range from 20 to 35 pesos ($8.50 to $14.85), trimmed ready to wear. Much finer hats are, of course, available in the department stores and a plain straw may also be had for from 5 to 10 pesos ($2.12 to $4.25). Soft cloth sport hats in white and colors are offered for $0.65 to $1.25 each. Besides the stores there are many milliners' shops where hats are trimmed to order.

Customs duties.—For the collection of customs duties, imports of women's hats are divided into three general classes, viz. fine, medium, and cheap. On hats considered fine duties of $22.68 per dozen are collected; on the medium grade, $11.34; while the cheap articles are dutiable at $3.63 per dozen. As a basis for the calculations hats worth up to $7.72 per dozen are considered cheap, those between that figure and $24.13 are medium, while hats valued at more than this are called fine.

VEILS.

The use of veils by Argentine women is general, although probably not so much so as in some of the other countries of South America, particularly on the west coast. During the year 1913 imports of veils into Argentina amounted to 15,952 pounds and were valued at $71,522. Nearly all of these were silk and came principally from France, which alone sent $55,480 worth. Since the war imports of veils have fallen off until in 1915 only $9,021 worth were brought into the country. Other countries having a share in the trade are England, Italy, and Germany, each sending between $4,000 and $5,000 worth in normal times. At present their shipments in this line are practically nil. The United States has as yet had no share in this business.

Veils are offered for sale in all the important stores and many of the smaller ones. For street wear dark blue, gray, white, and black are most popular, and they are sold both in plain colors and in patterns. Tulle and other materials are also sold by the meter for the fashioning of veils. Complete lines for mourning wear are shown, and veils for this purpose constitute the largest division of the trade. Bridal and communion veils are also extensively sold, the material being of cotton, linen, or fine silk tulle. They are, of course, in plain white and sometimes elaborately and expensively embroidered by hand.

Prices for dress veils range from $0.90 to $2.25 at retail. Bridal and communion veils, reaching from the head to the hem of the skirt, are advertised in many qualities and patterns and cost from $3 to $8.80 each, while very fine ones of Brussels lace, hand embroidered, may be bought at $33 to $154 apiece in the big department stores of Gath & Chaves or Harrods.

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Customs duties.—The duty on silk veils is $2.10 per pound and on cotton ones $0.28. Fine bridal veils, coming one in a box, are dutiable at 32 per cent of their value. In the first two classes the goods are weighed with their wrappings.

SHIRT WAISTS.

While the use of shirt waists or blouses by the Argentine women is perhaps not so general as it formerly was among the American women, nevertheless the garment is important in the local wearing apparel trade. Full lines in many models and various materials are carried by all the department stores and by most of the small shops, not to mention a number of foreign mail-order and special consignment concerns. Stocks include both imported and locally made blouses, the small general stores usually confining their numbers to the latter type. The finest goods, of course, come from abroad, although the domestic product is a very creditable article in many respects. Import statistics are not given in enough detail to show the value of imported blouses, but doubtless a considerable part of the large sums represented by imports of manufactured articles relate to this line. The fact that French tastes and practice govern the styles in blouses worn in Argentina, and that most of those imported come from France, strengthens the foregoing conclusion, as that country leads all others in imports of manufactured articles.

OPENING FOR AMERICAN GOODS.

Importers claim that the American shirt waist can be sold here in satisfactory quantities, as it compares favorably, both in fashion and price, with those that come from Europe. As styles are subject to rather frequent changes, it will be necessary in this line to make prompt shipments of both samples and consignments, in order that the goods may be stocked and disposed of before the mode of the moment has passed. This is, of course, especially difficult at this time, owing to unsatisfactory shipping conditions. Probably the best plan would be for American manufacturers, or a group of them, to establish an office and salesroom here, carrying stocks on the ground all the time to take care of the wholesale trade, and with a special department to handle retail mail-order sales. Certain modifications will probably be necessary in the fashioning of the American shirt waist for this market, as the Argentine woman is inclined to a greater development of arms, shoulders, and bust than her American sister. These, however, are points to be adjusted after a preliminary study of the market, and a local branch office would probably be the surest method of working them out. A few orders for North American blouses have already been sent from this market.

MATERIALS AND DESIGNS.

Shirt waists for local wear are made with both the closed and open throat, although the latter type is decidedly the more common form. They are almost invariably made to button or fasten in front, and are secured at the waist line by a flare flounce added to the waist

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proper and over which the skirt fits, holding the blouse in place. The V-shaped neck is the most popular, and scarfs are worn with the blouses to a limited extent. The chic, manish effect of the stiff collar and necktie are never seen except on English or other foreign residents. The very free use of lace frills and applications characterize the blouses worn in Argentina, and tucks and embroidery are also popular forms for adorning them. The use of men's shirtings for making up natty and pretty shirt waists has not yet come into vogue in Argentina.

The shops in Buenos Aires tempt the feminine purchasers with very complete selections in shirt waists, and prices vary from 2 or 3 pesos ($0.85 to $1.25) for a bombazine or flannelette article of local manufacture up to 50 or 60 pesos ($21.20 to $25.45) for a fine imported one. A very plain chiffon blouse retails without difficulty for $8.50, while one of this material but of fancier design will sell for as high as $25. These are, of course, lined blouses, and the lining may be either of another grade of chiffon or of silk and the color the same or distinct.

Japanese silk is another popular material for shirt waists and many patterns are offered in this line. Plain white Japanese silk blouses are offered at $7.20 to $8.90 each, while inferior grades are advertised at $4.45, $5.10, and $5.95. Blouses of this goods are popular on account of their serviceability and the fact that when soiled they may be readily washed, at least in white and the lighter tints.

In the better quality goods, white, black, and single colors find the best sale. In the cheaper blouses of cotton, bombazine, crêpe, and flannelette, there is an endless variety of patterns and mixtures, and more of the goods are offered with stripes and figures. By no means all of the shirt waists are sold at prices as high as those mentioned, and very good ones may be had for a few pesos. In this grade, however, they are usually of domestic manufacture.

Blouses are made with attached collars as a rule, and the different styles include roll collars, Dutch collars, sailor collars, etc. Some of the blouses are made so that they may be worn without a collar, or with a separate one. The high standing collar is only occasionally seen and is used by more elderly ladies.

PACKING AND DUTIES.

Blouses for shipment to Argentina should be packed in strong wooden cases. The inner wrappings, however, should be as light as possible, preferably of thin, tough paper rather than cartons. The outer case should be well fastened and further secured with iron strapping to prevent its being opened en route.

Customs duties on shirtwaists are collected on the basis of the weight of the goods, plus that of their immediate wrappings. Cotton crêpe blouses are dutiable at $0.62 per pound, while blouses of cotton mixed with silk, or of wool or woolen mixture, pay $0.82 per pound. Waists of linen mixed with silk must pay $1.65 per pound.

Blouses of silk material, or mixtures of silk and any other fiber, are dutiable at the rate of $4.12 per pound, except those of crude silk which are assessed at $2.47 per pound.

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CORSETS.

For the purpose of facilitating the calculation of customs duties on corsets brought into Argentina, the customs tariff divides them into four classes according to their approximate value. The best grade has been given a value of $48.25 per dozen and duties amounting to 47 per cent of that figure are collected on all corsets which the local appraisers consider to be worth more than $19.30, the next lower valuation, per dozen. The second group comprises corsets valued at from $7.75 to $19.30 per dozen, into which category fall the greater portion of imported corsets. A third division includes corsets ranging in value from $4.85 to $7.75 per dozen, which pay duty on the basis of the latter figure, while any corsets of less value than $4.85 are nevertheless dutiable at 47 per cent of that figure. The rate of duty is in each instance 47 per cent.

During the year 1913 the average value per dozen of 92 per cent of the corsets imported was $8.85. For the year 1914 the average value of about 85 per cent of the imports was $10.20, and in 1915 approximately 90 per cent were valued at $9.57 per dozen. The balance of corset imports for each year was valued at $50 Argentine gold, or $48.25 United States currency. In 1915 only $5,452 worth out of total imports amounting to $51,825 were classified under the higher valuation. France sent most of these high-grade goods, and in the lower priced corsets that country was the nearest competitor of the United States. The latter country sends to Argentina more corsets of a grade averaging in the vicinity of $10 per dozen than any other country, its shipments amounting to about 50 per cent of the imports in this line.

IMPORTANCE OF DOMESTIC PRODUCTION.

Corsets of Argentine manufacture hold an extremely strong position in the local market, as may be judged from the fact that in the Republic there are no less than 123 establishments engaged in making them. The annual value of these locally manufactured corsets amounted in 1914 to $1,343,910. Practically all grades are turned out, any many of the local shops carry exclusively the native-made goods, while even the largest stores take large quantities. There are several important corset factories in Buenos Aires that make from 15 to 20 dozen corsets daily. At present none of them are working to capacity of plant. Much of the material used in the fabrication of these corsets is bought in the United States. One manufacturer complained that he could not induce the American exporters of corset cloth with whom he dealt to send him the designs which he considered most desirable for this market, but in general the goods are satisfactory.

In this, as in other lines of wearing apparel, the Argentine market is apparently very well served. Many different types are offered. Some had removable stays, to be taken out when the garment is washed. Others had an elastic web set in on each side at the bottom, permitting greater freedom of movement. Special maternity corsets may be had in varied styles. Nearly all the corsets sold locally are made to lace up the back and to hook in front. One prominent American firm, however, which manufactures front-lacing corsets exclusively, has introduced its product in Argentina and is doing a very satisfactory business.

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SELLING METHODS AND PRICES.

Corsets sold in Argentina generally have hose supporters attached, and only rarely are they seen in the show windows without them. On corsets of European or local origin these supporters are usually fancier than on the American garment, which perhaps makes for a more attractive presentation. One American corset house with a local branch makes a selling point of this simplicity of design. After all this is a minor consideration, the main point being that practically all corsets carry the garters attached. Four elastics are usually used, although six or eight are sometimes worn. Separate garters may be bought for attaching to the corset.

Formerly all who could afford it went to a corset "modiste" and had their corsets made to measure, but more recently many have preferred to go to one of the big stores and select from the ready-made stock. Many of the stores are realizing this tendency and have installed luxurious accommodations for the use of their clients while being fitted. In case the customer can not find a ready-made garment to her taste, the larger stores are prepared to supply custom-made corsets from measure. There are many "corseterias," or corset shops, some devoted exclusively to made-to-measure goods, while others carry various locally made lines. Any large department store will carry from one to four foreign makes, either European or American.

Prices of American corsets being sold in Argentina compare favorably with those charged for goods of other foreign make. A high-grade, front-lacing American corset is commonly sold at $7.50. The same corset would be sold in the United States for $5. The average retail price varies, however, and for definite periods the price may depend on the season or on the particular line that is being pushed. Recently the establishment selling the above-mentioned corset maintained an average retail price of $11 for over a month. There are, of course, many corsets sold at much lower prices, and even imported brands are advertised for as low as $2. On the other hand, beautiful French corsets, in flowered silk or plain design, are sold for $25 to $40 each. From 30 to 40 pesos ($12.75 to $17) is about the average price for a good custom-made corset, but 100 pesos (about $43) is not an unusual price to pay. Made-to-measure corsets still hold a large part of the business in Argentina.

PREVAILING STYLES AND COLORS.

The use of corsets for street wear is as common in Argentina as in the United States or in Europe, but in the privacy of the home they are worn to a far less degree. Confining the corset thus to dress wear tends to make it especially subject to the dictates of fashion. As in America, the ruling fashion of the moment in Argentina corresponds pretty faithfully to the prevailing French mode, particularly in women's wear. The French corsets are the only ones that make any show of rivaling the American article. The material employed in the finer French corsets is linen batiste or flowered silk. They are usually more fanciful in finish than the American corsets, and a special point is made of their light weight.

One of the distinct features of the Argentine corset trade is the great preponderance of sales of light blue and pale pink garments in

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the cheap and middle grades. In the United States these grades are almost invariably supplied in plain white, which, however, is not in general favor in Argentina. In the more expensive corsets the usual flowered and fancy designs are in vogue, moderate colorings being preferred. White chiffon and lace are popular trimming around the top of the corset.

Customs duties.—Duties on corsets are calculated on the basis of their value per dozen pairs. For this reason, unless the local buyer specifies otherwise when placing his order, the goods may be packed in individual cartons as is customary in the United States. Linen corsets, with ribs of horn, whalebone, or metal, and not exceeding $19.30 in value per dozen pairs, are subject to customs duties amounting to $9.07 per dozen, while similar goods not exceeding in value $7.75 per dozen must pay duties of $3.63. Cheaper garments, not exceeding $4.85 per dozen in value, with or without wood or rush ribs and up to four ribs of metal, pay duties of $2.27 per dozen. Corsets made from silk or mixtures thereof are dutiable at the rate of $22.68 per dozen.

Several firms maintain branch offices in Argentina for handling their corsets, while other firms of equal importance do a good business through local agents or their own traveling sales representatives.

PETTICOATS.

Petticoats are universally worn by the Argentine women. All the customary materials entering into their manufacture in the United States are to be found in the articles offered for sale in Argentina. Silk, imitations thereof, cotton, wool, linen, and flannel are all employed in both fabric and knit goods.

Garments of raso silk or satin are freely worn and many qualities are offered to the customers. They may be obtained for as little as $1.70 each, and from this figure up to $12.60 per garment a ready sale is encountered. Colors in the cheaper lines vary widely and include sundry shades of blue, green, pink, etc. Better quality petticoats of taffeta silk are advertised at $25 and $30. In this grade the colors are generally confined to black, white, or marine blue. Petticoats of washable Japanese silk are popular and many are sold at prices from $8.50 to $12.75 each.

Knitted silk or woolen petticoats are carried in stock by the largest stores, but they are most expensive and only the wealthier class can afford to wear them. The finest grades sell for $25 or $30. The silk garments are offered in black, white, and cream color, and in the paler tints, while the knit goods are invariably made in white, gray, or black.

The foregoing lines constitute the winter season numbers, and, generally speaking, represent the petticoats that are imported from foreign countries.

Except for the most expensive types, practically all of the white-goods petticoats for summer wear are made in the country. Many petticoats which are represented and sold as imported articles are in reality manufactured in the work rooms of the stores selling them. The manufacture of white goods is one of the most firmly established branches of the wearing-apparel industry, and annual production runs into millions of dollars. The cheapest grades of white cotton

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fabric petticoats sell for about $0.85. Better qualities, made from bramantine or madapollam with some slight trimming such as edging or insertion, are offered for $1.50 to $4.25.

The finest white petticoats are made from nainsook and many patterns are stocked, ranging in prices from $3.80 or $4.25 up to $19.10 and $21.20 for one of fine material, elaborately adorned with lace or embroidery. The usual forms of flounces, tucks, and gathers known in the United States are common in Argentina. Applied embroidery takes the form of leaves, sprays, drawn work, and conventional designs. Most of the petticoats are made with insertion about the bottom for passing a ribbon.

Cotton flannel or flannelette petticoats are also popular and may be bought in almost any retail shop for $1.25, $1.50, and $2 each. Woolen-flannel garments are sold at from $4 to $6. This type is usually made in colors or light stripes.

CUSTOMS CLASSIFICATION AND DUTIES.

Customs duties on petticoats coming into Argentina are based on weight, and goods should be placed in only the thinnest possible wrappings before being packed in the outer wooden shipping case. Otherwise excessive duties will have to be paid by the customer.

Duties on knitted goods are collected as follows: Petticoats made from cotton hoisery tissue, combined with wool or not, $0.39 per pound; if mixed with silk, $0.62 per pound; garments of wool or mixtures thereof, $0.59; if mixed with silk, $0.82 per pound: petticoats of pure or mixed linen, or imitations thereof, $1.18; if combined with silk, $1.65 per pound; silk goods or mixtures thereof, $4.12 per pound.

The following customs duties are collected on woven petticoats, as distinguished from knit goods: Plain or "filet" cotton petticoats, including weight of box, $0.37 a pound; same as foregoing, with embroidery or insertion, $0.72 per pound; linen petticoats, plain or "filet," $0.78 per pound; with embroidery, etc., $1.03 per pound; flannel petticoats, or those of wool or mixtures thereof, except silk, $1.03; silk or mixtures thereof, $4.12 per pound, except crude silk, which pays $2.47 a pound.

WOMEN'S UNDERWEAR.

This line may be divided into two general classes—goods for winter wear and white goods or lingerie. A great deal of knitted wool underwear is worn by the women of Argentina in the winter season. The most popular garment in this line is a three-quarter or knee-length union suit, or "combinación," as it is known locally. It is usually made fairly plain, with trimming at the neck and with the sleeves and legs finished with a cuff. Union suits are of the closed type, or made with an opening to button in front. For ladies' wear the colors most preferred are plain white or natural wool. Sizes generally run from 36 to 44, American measure, although they are expressed in French measurements as from 44 to 54. This is the bust dimension. The French method is to take the actual bust measurement in centimeters and divide it by two to get the various sizes. Prices for union suits range from $2.10 for a cotton jersey garment up to about $5 for a good woolen article.

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GARMENTS FOR WINTER WEAR.

Undershirts, to wear with knickerbockers or three-quarter length knit drawers, are also very generally worn, usually in wool or heavy cotton jersey. They are usually made to button at the throat, but some are open all the way down the front. Colors are the same as for the union suits and trimmings also correspond. Shirts are offered with or without sleeves, or with a short sleeve. Sleeves usually terminate in a cuff of the same material, and may be plain or fancy. Prices vary with the quality of the material used and the amount of trimming. A plain knitted cotton garment may be had for $0.85; a better woolen undershirt in colors or plain white will cost from $2.33 to $4.10, while knitted silk goods are offered in white, with long sleeves and open at the throat, for $5.30, $6.35, and $7.20 each.

Underdrawers, when sold separately, are always knee or three-quarter length. They are made with elastic woven into the waist and around the bottom of the leg. Jersey, of cotton, wool, or silk, is the popular form for winter wear. The cheaper grades are sold in colors; blue, pink, and white predominating. Cotton models are advertised at $1.20, $1.50, $1.70, and $1.90 a pair; woolen garments at $2.45 to $4, while similar models in silk cost from $4.88 to $7.20. Both closed and open seat designs are carried.

There is considerable knit underwear manufactured in the country, but this production is as yet largely confined to the cheaper and medium grades. In the better quality goods there is little or no competition to be encountered from the domestic production. It is admitted that the French furnish the standards in ladies' high-grade knit underwear. Undergarments imported from that country have an excellent finish, which makes for their ready acceptance in foreign markets all over the world. The type of buttons, trimming, etc., used on the undergarments has a material effect on their sale in Argentina.

The demand for silk garments is, of course, limited by their expensiveness, but a mercerized grade resembling silk is a ready seller. Woolen underwear is extensively worn in winter, and heavy cotton goods are substituted by the poorer classes. There is no notable difference between the type of underwear worn by Argentine women of the poorer classes and that used by the wealthy. In the kind and quality of the material used there is, of course, a wide variance.

LINGERIE MARKET.

The Argentine trade in lingerie is as fully developed as in some of the best-served centers of America. Very complete lines of both imported and locally manufactured goods are offered for sale and there are many stores where the most exacting demands may be satisfied. Some of the larger stores carry stocks of lingerie at prices varying from 50 cents to as many dollars for a single garment. One of the popular methods of selling this type of ladies' underwear is to offer a set of three or four pieces, usually consisting of chemise, corset cover, drawers, and nightgown. Practically all the ladies' underwear trade in fabric goods is in plain white, except in the high-grade silk lines, where pale pink or blue predominate. Hitherto nearly all of the fine lingerie was imported from Europe, but recently dealers

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have been forced to look to local manufacturers for their supplies and a surprising skill in making these goods has been developed. The United States has offered nothing so far to compete with the lingerie formerly supplied by Europe, and it is believed that it would be useless to try to compete in hand-finished or embroidered goods. The grade in which some business might be obtained by our manufacturers is the machine sewn and adorned underwear formerly coming from Belgium and a specialty of its capital, Brussels. The use of trimming or lace, although desirable, should not be overdone, and a few narrow quiet patterns are preferable to a profusion of such cheap decoration. The Brussels underwear was notable for its neat and attractive form of presentation. French styles rule the demand in Argentina in the better grades of women's underwear, and in the past France has been the most important source of supply. Switzerland and Austria also held a portion of this trade.

SALE OF READY-MADE ARTICLES.

Women's ready-made underclothing is carried in many diverse patterns and qualities by the Argentine stores. Besides the large department stores, which carry complete lines, and the smaller general stores, with lines less complete, there are many specialty stores dedicated exclusively to the sale of women's white wear. Among the more important of these are the "Galeries Lafayette," Calles Florida and Paraguay, Buenos Aires, with a home office in Paris; "A la Maison de Lingerie," an Argentine firm, at the corner of Calles Suipacha and Bme. Mitre, Buenos Aires; and "A la Ciudad de Londres," corner of Corrientes and Carlos Pellegrini. From these stores may be purchased garments of a moderate or an expensive type. White nainsook undershirts, drawers, and corset covers are sold in sets at from $2.60 to $8 or $10 per garment. A set of three pieces, consisting of undershirt, drawers, and nightgown, is advertised at $19.80 each for the first two pieces and $34.75 for the last.

These stores do not sell the cheapest grades of white underwear, but other stores do, as the following prices will indicate. Gath & Chaves advertise drawers of white cotton batiste, lace trimmed and of a conventional design, at $0.42 per pair. Corset covers and undershirts are also offered at this price. These goods are of domestic manufacture and represent the cheapest grades. Underdrawers are offered in both open and closed seats, the former type being most generally sold. Underskirts are made with round, square, or V neck and sleeveless. Corset covers are of the designs commonly worn in the United States. They are frequently made with quarter sleeves. Tucks and ruffles, ribbons, lace, and insertion are used in adorning women's white wear, and there are no material differences between the garments worn in the United States and in Argentina.

For night wear the women of Argentina have not gone in extensively for pajamas, although several stores advertise them. Gath & Chaves offer a number in colored cotton goods at about $4.30. The Galeries Lafayette advertise a similar type at $5.67, and better qualities in linen or silk at 35, 50, and up to 75 pesos ($14.85, $21.25, and $31.85) a suit. Nightdresses are generally of some kind of cotton material, madapollam and bramant cloth in the cheaper types and

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nainsook and batiste in the finer ones. Samples of the cheaper grades are submitted with this report. The higher-priced garments differ only in the quality of the materials used in their manufacture.

Bloomers are extensively worn by the women of Argentina. For the poorer classes the garment is furnished in cotton or cotton and wool. The better grades are made of jersey, wool, and silk. They are invariably of knit goods, with elastic at the waist and the knee. A bow of ribbon is also often placed at the knee. The colors enjoying the best demand are light blue, pink, black, and white. Types include both open and closed seats. Prices range from $1 to $10 a pair.

CHILDREN'S UNDERWEAR.

Owing to the fact that Argentine children wear half hose all the year, their winter-underwear needs form a problem for the American manufacturer. Short drawers are almost exclusively desired, and these have been difficult to obtain from the United States since the supply from Europe was cut off. There have been instances of Argentine merchants importing long drawers and cutting the legs to short length in order to meet the demand for this type.

Both two-piece and union underwear is generally sold for children's wear. Prices for children's underwear depend upon the age of the child for whom it is being purchased. For example, a knitted cotton undershirt that for an infant of 2 or 3 years costs $0.75, will be priced at $0.90 for a child of 4 or 5 years, $1 for a child of 8 to 10, and $1.15 for a 12-year-old child. This would be a quarter-sleeve garment, buttoning with two buttons at the throat. A similar garment in wool will range from $1.05 at the age of 2 to $1.30 at 7 years. A long-sleeve crêpe de Santé undershirt of mixed silk and wool sells for $1.95 to $2.45.

Union suits are similarly priced, and a garment costing $1.40 for a child of 2 or 3 years sells for $1.95 for one of 8 years. This for a long-sleeve cotton knitted type buttoning down the front.

Fabric underwear for children resembles in form the short trousers used for sport in the United States. It is made of drill, zephyr cloth, faconette, etc., and in either plain white or with a colored stripe. A few long drawers to fasten about the ankle with a string are also offered, but most of the business is in the short drawers. Prices do not differ widely from those of knit goods, viz, from $0.55 to $0.80 in zephyr to $1.15 to $1.45 in linen.

Shirts are made with long and half sleeves, and to fasten at the throat with two or three buttons. The fabrics employed are the same as those mentioned above for the drawers.

Except for isolated districts of the Republic, women's and children's underwear in Argentina is almost universally bought ready-made from the department stores or smaller shops catering to women's wants in wearing apparel.

WASH DRESSES.

Practically all the wash dresses worn in Argentina are made up in the country. Owing to the high duties on the completed dresses, it is preferable to import the goods and manufacture the garments in the native shops. Much of the material used in wash dresses comes

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from England, but many of the prints and muslins now being brought from the United States are very satisfactory, both to the Argentina dealer and to his customers. Small-figured prints are most in demand for summer wash dresses, and percale, lawn, and linen are also used. Some white cotton and linen dresses for sport purposes are imported ready-made from England, but the total amount is negligible in value. Large quantities of dress material are sold to people who make their own garments therefrom. A very pretty figured voile wash dress may be had ready-made for $3.60 to $4.25. Printed cotton voile is the most popular material for this class of dress. Linen dresses cost at least $10, and, if fancy, considerably more. Figured percale and chambray wash dresses are of course the cheapest type. Their use is confined to the poorer classes and to garments for children.

So far as could be determined, no ready-made wash dresses have been brought into Argentina from the United States. It is believed that on account of the high duties on these goods, and the strong position of the native industry, it would not prove a profitable business for the American manufacturer. The market is for the material rather than the finished article, and in this the American manufacturers can compete. Such American cotton prints as have been shipped to Argentina have proven generally satisfactory, especially in the fine, light-weight goods.

APRONS.

The apron is an article of general wear only with the serving classes in Argentina. The usual types sold in the United States for use by domestic servants are the ones in demand here. Among the people who can not afford to have servants, an old wrapper usually takes the place of the colored apron worn by the corresponding class in America. Among the tradespeople, too, the apron is less commonly worn than in America. The big packing plants are probably the largest consumers of this class of apron, and they either import the cloth and make the aprons themselves or buy the finished article locally. Factory employees, especially the women, generally wear a large, enveloping apron while engaged at their tasks, but this is of a cheap type and is manufactured in the country. Only the fancy, finer grade of aprons is imported, and the total business in this line is apparently not considered of sufficient importance to tabulate, since the article does not appear in the official publication of the Argentina customs returns. Prices range from 1.20 m/n ($0.51) to 8.50 m/n ($3.60). The envelope form is more commonly used than any other and is to be found in all the department stores in widely diversified patterns and colors.

HANDKERCHIEFS.

Imports of handkerchiefs during years of normal business movement are of considerable importance. During 1913 the value of handkerchief imports reached $1,982,993. The business falls naturally into two classes, the silk goods trade and that of cotton and other textiles. In the former grade, Japan and France controlled over 80 per cent of the business prior to the war in Europe. During the

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years 1914 and 1915 the French shipments of silk handkerchiefs fell to $86,334 and $39,025, respectively. Japan, with consignments aggregating in value $314,606 in 1914 and $328,910 in 1915, now holds nearly 75 per cent of the business. The United States in 1913 sent $159 worth of silk handkerchiefs to Argentina, and in 1915 only $1,626. In the same time Great Britain increased her shipments from $23,482 to $78,777. American silk handkerchiefs are little known to the importers of the country, and as their former source of supply in Japan has been but little affected by war conditions, there has been no occasion for an active search for new sources. The Japanese have a strong position in this line and the American manufacturer will have to do better than merely meet their terms if he wishes to gain a share of the trade.

Great Britain holds a correspondingly strong place in the importation of handkerchiefs of cotton and other vegetable textiles. During 1913 that country furnished $712,653 worth out of total imports valued at $974,882, while in 1915 it was still sending about 80 per cent of imports in this line, valued at $656,991. The United States in the last-named year furnished $17,549 worth of cotton handkerchiefs. In cotton goods Great Britain maintains her position through her highly developed cotton-manufacturing industry and the superiority of her general selling organization. Higher manufacturing costs, considerably higher freight rates, and a disadvantageous position in the market owing to Britain's long-established and satisfactory connections in the field, have kept America from gaining much of this business in the past. It must also be acknowledged that the English cotton or linen handkerchief is usually of a very superior quality as regards material and finish, and it is probably for this reason that the local industry in Argentina does not offer more competition. Only the cheaper qualities are manufactured within the country, practically all of the high-grade goods coming from abroad.

Both men's and women's handkerchiefs in designs and qualities of wide variety are offered in the Argentine stores. Plain white is most popular. Beyond a hemstitched border and possibly an initial in the corner, no decoration is desired for men's handkerchiefs. Women's handkerchiefs may be scalloped or embroidered more elaborately. Handkerchiefs for children, with colored figures or stripes, are to be obtained. Many fancy handkerchiefs are sold for use in the rural districts, where the peons and laborers knot them about the throat for wear in place of a collar. Many very cheap white and colored silk handkerchiefs are sold for this purpose. Owing to the extended periods of mourning observed by Argentine families in the event of the death of one of its members, there is a steady demand for all-black or black-bordered handkerchiefs.

Retail prices for handkerchiefs range from 20 centavos ($0.09) for a coarse article of zephyr cloth to 60 pesos ($25.48) a dozen for those of fine white batiste. An average selling price would be in the neighborhood of 12 to 15 pesos ($5.10 to $6.37) per dozen for white pocket handkerchiefs of good quality. Anything cheaper than 5 pesos ($2.12) per dozen may be considered inferior and will probably be in colors.

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TARIFF CLASSIFICATION AND DUTIES.

Duties on handkerchiefs entering Argentina are based on their weight, and for this reason care should be taken, when packing them for shipment, not to include any unnecessary paper or other wrappings, as duty will be collected thereon at the same rate as for the goods themselves.

In fixing the rates of customs duties the size of the handkerchief as well as its weight has been taken into consideration by the authorities. Cotton handkerchiefs also receive preferential treatment in the Argentine tariff, in that they are not subject to the surtax of 7 per cent collected on other articles paying duty of 20 per cent or more ad valorem. Embroidered or lace cotton handkerchiefs constitute the only exception to this preferential treatment. They are dutiable at 25 per cent, plus 7 per cent, on a valuation of 4 pesos Argentine gold per kilo, or $0.56 per pound. Hemstitched cotton handkerchiefs up to 60 centimeters (23.6 inches) square pay duty at the rate of $0.25 per pound; if not hemstitched, the duty is $0.22 per pound. If over 60 centimeters in size and without hemstitching, the duty is $0.11 per pound; when hemstitched, it is $0.16.

Plain handkerchiefs of linen, or a mixture thereof, are assessed duties amounting to $0.56 per pound; if hemstitched, the duty is $0.84. Embroidered linen handkerchiefs pay $1.40 per pound.

All-silk handkerchiefs, or those containing up to 15 per cent of another material, are dutiable at the rate of $2.10 per pound; if they are embroidered they are subject to the payment of duties amounting to $3.08 per pound. Silk handkerchiefs containing up to 70 per cent of another material are duitable at $1.12 per pound, while plain handkerchiefs of some other material, but containing up to 30 per cent of silk, are assessed at $0.84 per pound.

RIBBON.

An examination of the import statistics will indicate the importance of this line, closely allied to the wearing apparel trade. Practically no ribbon is manufactured in Argentina, hence it has to be brought in from abroad in large quantities, since its use for trimming and adornment is extensive. In 1913 the total value of Argentine ribbon imports was $1,329,975. The European war is responsible for a heavy falling off in imports of ribbon in the last three years. but in 1915 there was still imported $760,883 worth.

Although imported in lesser quantities, the value of silk ribbon was considerably greater than that of other materials. In this quality France easily held the lead in 1913, sending $599,271 worth out of total imports of $924,964. Consignments of silk ribbon from Germany were second in value to those from France, that country sending $178,134 worth. Other countries doing a relatively heavy trade in silk ribbon were Italy and Switzerland. Imports from the United States were insignificant in all lines. In cotton ribbon Germany was the foremost shipper, sending $156,904 worth, while Italy came second with shipments amounting to about half that sum. France sent $44,993 worth, and Great Britain and Spain were the only other nations whose consignments passed $30,000 in value. Total imports of cotton ribbon for 1913 amounted to 678,785 pounds, valued at $366,744.

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The most general uses for ribbon in Argentina are for trimming women's hats and in the making of underwear. The most popular types are in taffeta, satin, double satin, and wash silks, while the colors preferred are pink, blue, and yellow. Black and white ribbons are, of course, sold in large quantities. The samples forwarded with the report will indicate better than they can be described the widths, qualities, and shades of color desired.

Almost no American ribbon is imported into Argentina, but the French, Swiss, and Italian ribbons are both well and favorably known. Some dealers who had seen samples of American silk ribbon stated that what they saw had been of too high a grade to be popular in Argentina, or that, being a heavy silk, the customs duties made it too expensive, compared with the lighter, softer article imported from Europe. Other dealers had never seen samples of American ribbon and did not know what the American manufacturer could offer in the line.

Customs duties.—Silk ribbon is one of the very few articles that passes through the Argentine customhouses on the basis of net weight; that is, the immediate wrappings are not weighed with the silk when calculating the duty. This does not apply to the spool, however, and ribbon should come either wound upon itself or with the smallest possible amount of paper. One consignment of ribbon was seen where a narrow quarter-inch ribbon had been wound on full 2-inch spools. The spools should, if possible, correspond more nearly to the width of the ribbon.

The duty on silk ribbon in general amounts to $2.39 per pound, based on the net weight of the merchandise. Similar ribbon mixed with some other fiber pays $1.82 per pound on the net weight. Velvet ribbon and that mixed with some other fiber, particularly for trimming hats and for military use, is dutiable on the net weight at $0.77 per pound.

Cotton ribbon, weighed with immediate wrappings, pays duties of $0.14 per pound; ribbon of linen or a mixture thereof pays $0.17 per pound on a similar basis, while cotton ribbon, with a silk selvage, pays $0.28 per pound.

In sending samples to a dealer, the arrangement thereof should be made as neat and attractive as possible. A sample card showing a desirable arrangement is forwarded with this report as sample No. 423.

LACE, INSERTIONS, ETC.

The use of lace, insertions, and similar forms of dress trimmings is general in Argentina, the importance of the trade therein from year to year depending somewhat on the prevailing fashions. A certain amount is always required for the adornment of women's underwear and other white goods. At the present time the demand for wide laces for gowns and blouses is not active, but in the narrow numbers, from ½ inch to 1½ inches, the consumption continues satisfactory.

Since little or no lace is manufactured in the country, practically all is imported. Cotton, silk, and other kinds of laces are brought into Argentina, but the first-named variety has the chief demand. Cotton lace imports in 1913 totaled 859,645 pounds, with a value of $1,445,775. In 1915 these figures had fallen to 292,450 pounds, valued at $500,426. Prior to the war both Great Britain and Germany did

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an annual business of over half a million dollars in this line. Switzerland stood third in the value of lace imports, most of the machine-embroidered patterns coming from that country. France and Italy each sent over $100,000 worth, while the United States was in the trade to the extent of $5,694, which, however, indicates that American lace might compete in the Argentine market with some types of the European article. In the five-year period, 1909 to 1913, a total of about $12,000 worth of cotton lace was imported into Argentina from the United States. Since the war, instead of picking up in volume, shipments of lace from the United States have steadily fallen off. This is probably due to the decreased consumption of all merchandise for economic reasons. Nevertheless, with Germany out of the market and the other lace-producing countries severely handicapped in their production of lace, it would seem that better results should be shown in American sales.

While a certain amount of high-grade, handmade lace is imported the bulk of the business is in the machine-made imitation lace. Germany supplied largely the cheapest varieties of cotton lace, while that from England, although likewise made in imitation of the genuine handmade designs, is of a superior quality, and "Nottingham lace" is a standard term in the South American lace trade. Swiss machine-embroidered insertions and edgings are also widely and favorably known, and Switzerland has a strong hold on the Argentine market for this type of lace. A certain amount of lace is annually imported from the neighboring country of Paraguay, but in proportion to the total business the amount coming from this source is small. It is of a rather distinct type, somewhat resembling Teneriffe lace, and is known in Argentina as ñanduti, or spider-web lace. It finds its best sale among visiting tourists, who desire to carry away with them something typical of the River Plate countries. It is made in black, white, and colors, and in silk, linen, and cotton thread. It is usually found in the form of made-up articles, such as collar and cuff sets, baby caps and dresses, shawls, scarfs, table pieces, etc., but it may also be bought in various patterns by the meter.

Customs duties.—All lace entering Argentina is assessed duty on the basis of weight. Lace received packed in interior cardboard cartons is dutiable at the following rates: Lace of cotton, wool, or a mixture thereof, made in imitation of Valenciennes, Bretonne, guipure, or crochet, including that with metallic threads or fringe, $0.56 per pound; medium class linen lace and handmade cotton work pay $1.40 per pound; fine linen lace pays $3.09 per pound; lace of silk or a silk mixture must pay, when bearing fringe, $1.24 per pound; lace of silk mixed with some other fiber pays $2.47 per pound, while all-silk lace is dutiable at $3.72 per pound. On lace shipped without cartons, these duties are 10 per cent greater.

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ARGENTINA'S INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS.

EARLY DIFFICULTIES.

While Argentina is and for many years will continue to be primarily a producer of raw materials and foodstuffs, and owe its importance chiefly to these pursuits, its industrial possibilities are not being overlooked or neglected. Industrial growth in Argentina during the past 20 years has been truly surprising, and scarcely 40 years ago the country was practically without an industry, even wheat being imported for the millers.

To properly judge the importance of this advancement, it is necessary to glance over the history of industrial progress in the country. The first settlers of the present Republic of Argentina were simple people of Spanish origin. Accustomed, as they had always been, to the sequestered life of a pastoral race, their wants were few and there was no apparent reason for exerting themselves beyond what was necessary for their satisfaction. An infusion of new blood was essential to give impetus to any industrial movement in the new land, and this was impossible under the old Spanish system of isolating her colonial possessions from the rest of the world.

During centuries of Spanish rule in the River Plate country this isolation was almost complete. The only activity that might be termed industrial was the terrible working of the Peruvian mines. Communities were situated at enormous distances from one another and communication was slow and difficult. Not until near the end of the eighteenth century was Buenos Aires opened to commerce as a seaport, and then only for products coming from Spanish communities. Until that time all the trade of the continent had been obliged to pass through the one authorized port, Porto Bello on the Isthmus of Panama. Goods manufactured outside of Spain must first have passed through some Spanish port on their way to Porto Bello, if destined to South America. At that port they were unloaded from the galleons and packed on mule back to the seat of the Spanish Government at Lima. From this point they were again distributed on mule back to the other settlements on the continent, and when they eventually arrived at their destination the cost to the unfortunate merchants who were forced to buy them may well be imagined. Had there been the initiative of an industrial race in the character of the colonists, these difficulties must have brought about the establishment of industries to supply this merchandise. Undoubtedly, too, Crown regulations against manufacturing in the colonies and thus depriving the mother country of her markets were in effect. It was not, therefore, until the overthrow of Spanish authority and the foundation of the Republic that local industry had a chance.

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In 1830 the first large importing houses were established and articles of foreign manufacture began to enter the country and circulate through the interior, exciting among the inhabitants of those regions a desire to possess them. This was the mere beginning, the creating of the demand. During the middle of the nineteenth century there set in a current of immigration from other parts of Europe, strong enough to make itself a factor in the life of the nation. These people were of a more active disposition and furnished the new blood needed to start the industrial movement.

PROGRESS IN TWO DECADES.

Between 1880 and 1890 were established the first of the great industries for feeding, clothing, and sheltering the people of Argentina. From this period dates the meat-packing industry, which in turn called for intensification of stock-raising activities, breweries, tobacco factories, soap and candle factories, tanneries, shoe shops, sugar refineries, and carriage and harness shops. With the political tranquility prevailing at the beginning of the twentieth century Argentina was in a favorable position to go ahead with its industrial pursuits and to strengthen that branch of its national existence.

Many of these oportunities have been improved, as is shown by the last census, completed in June, 1914. This record indicates that since the taking of the previous census in 1895 the number of industrial establishments of all kinds in the country increased from 24,114 to 48,779, or more than 100 per cent in less than 20 years. In the same time capital employed in operating them grew from $138,808,000 to $757,968,813, a gain of more than 500 per cent.

By the census of 1895, only 18.67 per cent of the country's industries was in the hands of native Argentinians. In 1914 over 32 per cent was under their control, indicating the people's capacity for successfully carrying on industrial enterprises of diverse natures.

NUMBER AND PRODUCTION OF CLOTHING FACTORIES.

Of the total capital invested in Argentina, only about 3.5 per cent, or $26,756,106, is employed in the manufacture of commodities coming within the scope of this report, although the total output of the factories amounts to $39,656,228, or over 5 per cent. The following table demonstrates the position of clothing industries at the time of the taking of the last census in 1914:

Industries.	Number.	Capital.	Annual value of product.
Corsets, ready made and custom	123	$630,403	$1,343,910
Embroideries, insertions, etc	27	99,746	126,352
Gloves, ties, and men's articles	13	155,608	335,808
Hats, felt, wool, etc	81	2,538,594	3,319,613
Hats, straw	11	126,352	333,963
Knit goods	55	3,357,757	5,107,710
Modistes and women's costumers	574	2,468,611	3,292,742
Ribbons, silk	3	53,000	34,768
Shirts, collars, and cuffs	61	1,230,238	2,261,122
Tailor shops	3,083	14,312,000	21,503,486
White goods in general	38	1,763,797	1,996,754
Total	4,069	26,756,106	39,656,228

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Information regarding the organization and capacities of the above plants may be gathered from the following table showing the nationality of the owners, character of the operating personnel, and types of motive power employed:

Industries.	Nationality.				Motive power.						Personnel.			
	Argentinians.	Foreigners.	Mixed.	Total.	Steam.		Electricity.		Explosion.		Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
					No.	Hp.	No.	Hp.	No.	Hp.				
Corsets	25	96	2	123	....	.....	19	54	....	.....	169	697	19	885
Embroidery	6	19	2	27	....	.....	18	9	....	.....	81	119	4	204
Gloves, ties	1	12	.....	13	....	.....	1	1	....	.....	87	'61	.....	148
Hats, felt	12	66	3	81	13	464	70	681	3	128	1,438	597	125	2,160
Hats, straw	6	5	.....	11	1	20	6	5	....	.....	103	98	1	202
Knit goods	11	40	4	55	10	1,009	75	709	9	831	1,242	2,910	230	4,382
Modistes	177	395	2	574	....	.....	7	15	....	.....	624	3,119	111	3,754
Ribbons	.....	3	.....	3	2	16	1	3	1	14	22	24	.....	46
Shirts, etc	8	52	1	61	7	132	39	190	2	36	557	1,093	65	1,715
Tailor shops	441	2,615	27	3,083	....	.....	7	34	....	.....	15,337	5,449	554	21,380
White goods	9	25	4	38	....	.....	4	6	....	.....	325	415	9	749
Total	696	3,328	45	4,069	33	1,641	247	1,707	15	1,009	19,985	14,582	1,118	35,625

LABOR, CAPITAL, AND MATERIALS.

Generally speaking, Argentina factory labor, if not as highly trained as that of the United States, is intelligent and fairly efficient. Employees capable of being rapidly trained for industrial mechanical operations are sufficiently numerous to supply the demand at present and for some time to come. Referring to this question, Mr. Alberto B. Martinez, Director of the Third National Census, 1914, states:

> The generally prevailing belief that there is in the Argentine a serious lack of efficient labor for industrial activities other than agriculture or stock raising is a misapprehension. The technical aptitude and professional knowledge of 4,700,000 immigrants arrived in the country during the last 50 years from all parts of the earth oppose this idea. Thirty per cent of these immigrants were classified as of "diverse trades" and brought, besides their eagerness to encounter employment here, their energy, knowledge, and aptitude for industrial pursuits acquired in their native lands.

The latest census indicates a total of only 410,000 persons engaged in industrial activities, so it would seem incorrect to cite scarcity of labor supply as an important reason why domestic industries have not developed more rapidly.

One of the handicaps in the normal development of the country's industries and resources is the lack of capital in sufficient quantities. Many undertakings based on sound business projects have failed of success for lack of funds to keep them going until they were established. Factory industries can not be initiated without the necessary financial support to permit of economy of production, since it is on that basis that they must compete with the imported articles. Up to the present the tremendous growth of agricultural and stock-raising industries, yielding relatively prompt and large profits, has absorbed nearly all of the surplus capital in Argentina, to the detriment of other industries and resources.

Argentina may in time develop its national industries to the extent of becoming in a measure self-sustaining, but it will probably never

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owe its chief importance to them. The main reason for this belief is the lack of two important elements essential to extensive manufacturing, viz, coal and iron. While there are indications of numerous deposits of coal, it has not as yet been discovered in a form to be of commercial value. Petroleum is also found in the country, but so far production has been negligible and it is not certain that it will ever be a great factor in the economic life of the nation.

MANUFACTURE OF WEARING APPAREL.

Domestic manufacture of lines covered in this report has attained a limited importance in the home market, but in no single line is it yet capable of taking over the burden of supplying the entire consumption. Except in the cases of hats and shoes, there are no factories devoting their entire energies to any one line. The same company that makes men's shirts will probably produce also collars, belts, suspenders, and fabric underclothing, while knit-goods establishments invariably turn out several distinct lines, such as underwear, hosiery, sweaters, etc. Under this system no thorough organization or forced speed production is possible.

The conditions of labor in the wearing-apparel establishments are generally satisfactory. Employees are almost universally paid by the day or week and there is no driving or "sweating" practiced. As a rule, shops are well lighted and airy, with ample working room for each employee. Safety devices are not generally installed, but the necessity for them is not so great as in the United States, since the pace at which employees work is only a moderate one, and they do not become careless from exhaustion.

PRINCIPAL PLANTS MAKING CLOTHING.

Some of the more important firms making wearing apparel, with a brief description of their plants, are listed below according to the class of the product they are principally engaged in producing.

SHIRTS, COLLARS, AND CUFFS.

Braceras y Martinez, Calle Mexico, 3275, Buenos Aires.—Wholesale manufacturers of men's shirts and collars, operating 56 machines and employing 100 hands. The product is of a medium grade. The nationality of the owners is Spanish.

Enrico Dell Acqua y Cia., Calle Darwin, 752, Buenos Aires.—Stock company manufacturing largely for its own stores, of which it operates about 40 throughout the Republic. Articles manufactured include shirts, knit goods, and men's clothing. Besides the main works, operating 94 machines and employing 250 workmen, the firm gives work out to thousands of employees on a piecework basis. The operating capital of the company is reported to be large. The nationality of the firm is Italian. Materials are usually purchased from Italy, and before the war some came from Germany; at present purchasing in the United States.

Pedro Dominone, Calle Cangallo, 1260, Buenos Aires.—Important Italian firm manufacturing diverse lines, including men's shirts and collars, neckties, and soft and stiff hats. Over 150 hands are employed, operating 100 machines. The class of product is medium.

Gath & Chaves, Calles Florida and Cangallo, Buenos Aires.—The manufacturing of this firm is confined to supplies for its own chain of stores, described in another section of this report. The factory employs 500 operatives, with 170 machines, on various lines of white goods for men and women, as well as

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men's, women's, and children's suits. Besides the regularly employed hands in the factories, Gath & Chaves furnish home work for 20,000 to 25,000 people. A new laundering department has recently been installed, with machinery from a well-known American manufacturer. This will be exclusively for the work of the factory and stores.

E. Gonzalez Garcia, Calle Pozos, 666, Buenos Aires.—Manufactures white collars and cuffs. Shop is equipped with 25 machines and employs 60 hands regularly. Much work is, however, given out to be done, as this is one of the more important factories. The firm is Spanish. It is progressive and turns out a very fair grade of work.

Kulke-Frankel y Cia., Calle Carranza, 2243, Buenos Aires.—Wholesale manufacturers of men's shirts, collars, fabric underwear, and white wear in general. The main factory has an installation of 172 machines and employs 300 operatives. The line of men's shirts is a good one and their whole product averages a very fair grade. The firm is Austro-German, and has been established in Argentina 11 years. It is fairly progressive and is one of the two or three most important manufacturers in the lines mentioned.

Larrea y Bugarin, Calle Moreno, 1724, Buenos Aires.—A small manufacturing concern operating with 14 machines and employing 30 hands. The principal line is men's shirts, and the product may be classified as of a fair grade. The firm is of Spanish nationality, reasonably progressive, and has been in business in Buenos Aires for only a few years.

Andres Ortiz, Calle Entre Rios, 492, Buenos Aires.—A small concern making men's shirts for its own store and doing custom work. Six machines are operated and a cheap and medium grade product made. The proprietor is Spanish.

Parada y Cia., Calle Peru, 139, Buenos Aires.—Another small firm manufacturing men's shirts for its own retail establishment. Operates 14 machines and employs 15 hands. Nationality, Spanish.

S. Gonzalez Regalado, Calle Entre Rios, 1118, Buenos Aires.—Manufactures for own stores, making shirts, collars, and cuffs. Operates 20 machines, turning out goods of cheap quality.

José Romero, Calle Cevallos, 442, Buenos Aires.—Chief lines are collars and cuffs for the wholesale trade. Operates 14 special machines, but has most of the plain work done outside the factory.

H. Sternberg, jr., y Cia., Cabildo, 543, Buenos Aires.—The largest concern devoted to the manufacture of men's shirts, collars, cuffs, belts, suspenders, etc., in Argentina. Founded by J. H. Sternberg in 1892. The former proprietor, a German, has since died and the sons now continue the business. The factory is located on the outskirts of the city, where it occupies a two-story cement building covering nearly a whole city block. A branch of the factory operates in Calle Venezuela, 2592, making men's shirts principally. There are approximately 650 employees in the two factories, mostly women. There are 355 machines for finishing garments, besides a number of cutting machines, at the Cabildo factory, while the shop in Calle Venezuela has 90 machines. This firm formerly made a large quantity of white goods for Gath & Chaves, but since the war it has lost this trade, owing to the pro-German sentiments of the proprietors. The production is of a very good grade, and the firm not only sells generally throughout the Republic but is exporting some goods to neighboring countries. The firm maintains show and salesrooms at Calle Cangallo, 840–850, in the business district of Buenos Aires.

EXTERIOR CLOTHING.

Alegria y Cia., Bartolome Mitre, 1353, Buenos Aires.—Spanish partnership, two brothers; employ 50 workmen and operate 22 machines, chiefly in manufacture of boys' sailor suits and dust coats. During the past year firm turned out 20,000 linen dusters and over 40,000 sailor suits. Buy some of their materials in United States, such as brins, cotton cloths, and interlinings. Machines all American, except cutting machine, which is French. Only the special sewing and finishing is done in the shop, the plain work being done in homes. Other lines made include men's trousers, light summer suits of cotton cloth, riding clothes, pajamas, etc. The product is generally of a cheap grade.

Alvarez y Terrasa, 979 Las Heras, Tucuman.—Small Spanish concern making overcoats and men's and boys' clothing for sale in own store, only three machines being employed. Make a cheap line of goods.

Angel Braceras, 340 Cevallos, Buenos Aires.—One of the largest and most important firms manufacturing textile articles in Argentina. Employs about

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1,000 hands, operating 769 machines. Makes Argentine Government army uniforms, uniforms for tramway operators, police, and fire department. The firm has been in business 25 years and makes a medium and cheap grade product. The nationality of the firm is Spanish.

Avelino Cabezas, 641 Liniers, Buenos Aires.—Spanish concern, already described in body of report (p. 41). Manufacture solely for own store; have 27 machines in operation. Much of their work is also done outside. Principal lines are ladies' white goods and men's and boys' suits. Strongly in sympathy with American institutions and buy much of their stock in United States.

Carreras y Lascano, Cordoba, Cordoba.—A large tailoring shop, most of the work being given out, only special machines doing work in shop.

Antonio Delgado, 630 Cordoba, Buenos Aires.—A small concern operating only four machines, making men's and boys' suits.

Eloy, Martinez y Cia., Cordoba, Cordoba.—A fair-sized shop, operating 10 machines and giving out considerable work. Make men's and boys' suits, overcoats, dust coasts, etc. The firm is of Spanish nationality.

Fernandez, Roca y Cia., Rosario.—A large tailoring establishment having at present 19 machines and some 30 employees. The firm is Spanish.

Gath & Chaves.—See previous description under "Shirts, collars and cuffs."

B. A. Harrods, Florida and Cordoba, Buenos Aires.—Same concern as described on page 40. Part of factory is in same building with store, but most important part is in Calle Humberto 1°, near Entre Rios, Buenos Aires. About 200 hands are employed and 70 machines operated. The chief lines are women's and children's white goods and men's and women's and children's suits. Manufactures for itself only.

Linage, Fernandez y Cia., 145 Lima, Buenos Aires.—An old concern of Spanish nationality, making a cheap and medium product. Makes men's and boys' suits and overcoats. Operates 10 special machines, but most of the work is done outside. A strong house.

Martinez, Menendez y Cia., 1060 Alsina, Buenos Aires.—Make men's and boys' clothing, having much work done outside; have 30 employees in shop. Firm is of Spanish nationality. Have one cutting machine and several special machines. Turn out a cheap to medium grade of goods.

A. Martinez y Cia., Cordoba, Cordoba.—Make men's and boys' clothing and overcoats of a cheap grade. The firm is of Spanish nationality and has been in business for about 25 years. Operates 12 machines in shop, but most of the work is done in homes of workers. Manufacture for wholesale trade.

Reveulta y Cia., San Geronimo, 247, Cordoba.—Firm of Spanish nationality, operating 11 machines in making medium grade of men's and boys' clothing, dust coats, etc. Sell to retailers. A large amount of work is done outside the factory. The firm is of 11 years' standing in Argentina.

James Smart, Florida and Bme. Mitre, Buenos Aires.—One of the most stylish men's tailors and outfitters in Argentina. Manufacture for own store only. Employ about 20 hands and 16 machines, making men's and boys' clothing, overcoats, etc. Also make men's shirts, white underwear, etc. English nationality; buy most of supplies in England.

M. Zabata, Bme. Mitre and Esmeralda, Buenos Aires.—An important men's ready-made clothing store of Spanish nationality. Manufactures practically all its stock, importing only the materials, which are brought from England and Spain.

Pedro Zain y Cia., Santiago del Estero.—Small but important tailoring establishment of Spanish nationality. Most of the plain work is done outside the shop, only special work and finishing being done inside. Manufacture for their own store only.

MEN'S AND WOMEN'S WHITE GOODS.

Alvarez Terraza y Cia., 615 Mendoza, Tucuman.—Small firm making men's white underwear, shirts, etc., for own store, operating four machines. Make goods of cheap grade. Firm is Spanish.

Cerrutti Carrosso y Cia., Caseros, 3041, Buenos Aires.—Italian concern making women's white goods operating 20 machines; plain stitching and embroidery work is done outside factory.

J. Garrido y Cia., 847 Mendoza, Tucuman.—Small Spanish concern operating four machines and turning out linen and cotton underwear for own store. Practically all work is done outside shop. Product is of cheap grade. Also make workmen's cheap shirts and do big piece-goods trade. Will buy in United States if prices are right.

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José M. Gomez, Cabrera, 3251, Buenos Aires.—Large manufacturers of women's white wear, and one of oldest factories in city. Operate 40 machines and employ 60 hands. This is a Spanish firm and it does considerable work for the large department stores of Gath & Chaves and the Ciudad de Mexico. Product of a medium grade.

Gonzalez, Martinez y Cia., Alsina, 1257, Buenos Aires.—Spanish firm making women's white goods. Use 25 machines and employ 100 hands. Produce a fairly high-grade line of merchandise, including shirts, drawers, nightgowns, etc., in cotton fabrics. An exceptionally progressive concern, established about eight years. A great deal of the work is done outside. Manufacture for the wholesale trade.

Llonay y Cia., Calle Congreso, 77, Tucuman.—Spanish firm making linen and cotton underwear for own store. Employ four machines. Make a cheap product.

Enrico Dell Acqua y Cia.—Large manufacturers of women's white wear. (See description under previous heading.)

KNIT GOODS.

Baibiene y Antonini, San Jose, 1641-1663, Buenos Aires.—An important Italian firm with a branch in Rosario. Manufacture cheap to medium grade sweaters, sport jerseys, stockings, and men's and women's knit underwear. Employ 150 hands and operate 50 stitching machines, with knitting machines to correspond. Make for the wholesale trade only.

Luis Barolo y Cia., Calle Suarez, 1050, Buenos Aires.—An Italian firm, one of the largest and most important in Argentina. Have recently erected a fine new concrete factory, three stories high, in the manufacturing district of Buenos Aires. The new building combines all modern improvements, and special attention has been paid to installations looking to the comfort of the employees. These include a rest and reading room, supplied with books and papers, a dining room, and a model sanitary kitchen with 24 electric stoves for warming lunches, making tea, etc. The furnishings are of the best materials and in good taste. Baths and sanitary closets are also provided apart from the working rooms.

The activities of this firm embrace two distinct lines, viz, the fabrication of the cloths and the manufacture of certain lines of wearing apparel. The whole ground floor is given over to the first division, the factory working with both wool and cotton. Most of the machinery on this floor is English. On the top floor are the knitting machines, numbering about 50, while on the floor between is the stitching and finishing room with a cutting machine and 230 sewing machines. The knitting machinery is of German design; the rest is American. Working conditions are excellent, as there are windows on three sides, while the roof is of glass. Power for running the factory is generated by three electric motors giving 300 horsepower.

Excepting those working on looms practically all of the employees, numbering between 400 and 500, are women and girls. They attend the spindles and the carding machines and do the stitching and finishing of the garments on the second floor.

Besides the woolen goods and suitings manufactured, the firm makes a cheap to medium grade of underwear and stockings. The firm has been in business over 20 years.

Juan Bettinelli, Calle Iriarte, 2165, Buenos Aires.—An Italian firm employing about 80 hands and operating 40 stitching machines and about the same number of knitting machines. The stitching machines are American; the others came from various countries of Europe, but none from America. The concern occupies rather ramshackle quarters in the industrial section of Buenos Aires, the building being an old wooden one of two stories. The knitting machinery is on the lower floor, together with the laundering and other sections, while upstairs are the stitching machines. Working conditions are poor, it being too dark downstairs, while the workers above, mostly girls, are crowded together.

The firm produces a cheap to medium grade of men's, women's, and children's knit underwear for the wholesale trade. Although operating under unfavorable conditions, this firm does a large business. The proprietor is an admirer of American institutions.

Augustin Braceras, Calle Lima, 368, Buenos Aires.—A Spanish-Argentine firm operating with 20 stitching machines and about an equal number of knitting machines. Sixty workers are employed. Cheap cotton stockings form the chief article of production. Sales are to the retail stores at wholesale.

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Bruno Pozzo y Cia., Calle Canning, 55, Buenos Aires.—An Italian firm dedicated exclusively to the manufacture of stockings. About 40 hands are employed at all times. Ten stitching machines are operated. The stockings manufactured are of a cheap to medium grade.

Chaillon y Cia., Calle Venezuela, 3240, Buenos Aires.—A large concern making high-grade women's knit underwear for the wholesale trade. The firm is of French nationality. About 150 hands are employed. Sixty stitching machines and a corresponding number of knitting machines are operated. This is one of the two firms turning out a really high-class article in the knit-goods line.

Gerino Hnos., Calle Brazil, 2501–2543, Buenos Aires.—An important concern in the knit-goods line. They operate with nearly 500 hands, employing a large number of machines. All of their work is done within the factory. The firm is Italian-Argentine. Its lines include knit underwear, stockings, sweaters, jerseys, etc.

Cayetano Gerli, Calle Tarije, 3770, Buenos Aires.—Another important knit-goods manufacturer, employing 100 hands and operating 60 stitching and a number of knitting machines. Knit underwear and stockings of a cheap grade form the bulk of the output. The firm is Italian and manufactures for the wholesale trade.

Antonio Gerli, Estachión Gerli, F. C. Sud, Argentina.—Another large concern making knit goods, mostly underwear and stockings. The firm occupies a new factory outside of the city of Buenos Aires to the south. The building is a two-story, concrete structure, especially built for the present proprietor. It has windows on all four sides. Downstairs are the knitting machines, numbering about 60, and space for storing supplies, etc. Upstairs are the cutting and stitching sections and the finishing room. There are 120 stitching machines, American, while the entire factory employs about 200 operatives. The firm manufactures for the wholesale trade, doing considerable work for Gath & Chaves. The product is of a cheap and medium quality. Mr. Gerli is an Italian of 25 years' residence in Argentina. His factory works mostly in cotton at the present time, owing to the difficulty of securing wool. The cotton is brought from the United States. This is in contrast to the Barolo factory, where it is claimed that a large proportion of the raw cotton used comes from the northern regions of Argentina known as the Chaco. Nearly all of the employees of the Gerli factory are girls. They earn from 1.50 to 2.50 m/n ($0.66 to $1.10) per day of eight hours. Baths and a dining room for noon lunches are provided by the firm.

Herbin Freres, Calle Lavalle, 4050, Buenos Aires.—A French concern manufacturing a high grade of men's and women's underwear. There are about 100 employees, operating 30 stitching machines and about 15 knitting machines. The firm is contemplating the installation of a section for the manufacture of stockings. Herbin Freres is an old-established firm, with a parent factory in France, now operating under the direction of the nephews of the owner of the Argentine business. The quarters occupied are unpretentious though modern in construction. The factory was equipped to run on petroleum, but owing to the difficulty of getting that fuel, it is now operating on quebracho wood. The power machinery is of English origin. Operatives are mostly women and girls, some of whom have been with the firm for more than 20 years. Excellence in manufacture is sought rather than quantity of production. Supplies of cotton for the knitting machines are purchased in the United States. The firm manufactures for the wholesale trade exclusively.

Maximo Hochbaum, Calle Gurruchaga, 732, Buenos Aires.—A small firm devoted exclusively to the manufacture of stockings, making mostly a very cheap grade. Some 30 operatives are employed, with 6 stitching machines and a number for knitting the material. The firm is of German-Argentine nationality and has been established four or five years. It manufactures for the wholesale trade.

Italo-Americano, Calle Triunvirato, 943, Buenos Aires.—A large and important concern engaged in the manufacture of knit goods, including underwear, jerseys, stockings, etc. The factory takes up nearly a whole block on the outskirts of the city. It gives work to some 200 employees, and there are 140 machines for stitching work alone. The output is very large and the class of work medium, although some more finished work is turned out. The nationality is Italian.

Lacaze & Spiller, Calle Victoria, 1127–38, Buenos Aires.—An important French concern doing a very considerable importing business in addition to the manufacturing of knit goods. A good grade of women's underwear, sport jerseys,

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etc., is turned out. There are about 150 employees operating 50 stitching and a number of knitting machines. The firm is an old-established one, with head offices in Paris. Importations include piece goods, underwear, laces, ribbons, hats, and other articles of wearing apparel. Manufacture for wholesale trade.

Masllorens Hnos., Calle Olavarria, 16, Avellaneda.—Manufacturers of a good grade of women's underwear, sweaters, and other knit goods. There are 140 employees with some 60 stitching machines in operation, besides those for knitting the material. Manufacture for the wholesale trade.

Francisco Migone, Calle San Juan, 241, Buenos Aires.—Italian firm, manufacturers of women's knit underwear. Employs 70 operatives, with 30 stitching machines. The product is of a medium grade. Light woolen and cotton ribbed goods form chief lines.

Morini y Cia., Calle Canning, 436, Buenos Aires.—A small Spanish concern operating 8 stitching machines and employing 40 hands, making knit underwear of a fair quality. Sweaters and sport coats of wool and silk are also made in this shop.

Petit y Piria, Calle Rivadavia, 1423, Buenos Aires.—A good concern making medium wool underwear and cotton stockings. The product is of a cheap to medium quality, and is sold through the firm's own store in Calla Rivadavia, as well as to the wholesale trade. Employees number about 100, with 71 stitching machines. The firm is of French nationality.

Raimaun y Cia., Calle Pavon, 1476, Buenos Aires.—A small plant dedicated to manufacture of hosiery of cheap grade. The output is small, eight stitching machines being operated. The nationality of the firm is French.

Rcise, Adolfo, Calle Pichincha, 348-347, Buenos Aires.—A German firm engaged solely in the manufacture of stockings. Operates 10 stitching machines and employs 20 hands.

Luis Ricciardi y Hno., Calle Bustamante, 477, Buenos Aires.—A progressive firm of Italian nationality manufacturing hosiery and knit underwear for the wholesale trade. The product is of a cheap to medium grade. There are over 200 employees, operating 60 knitting machines for underwear material, 50 for stockings, and 125 stitching machines. Raw material is imported from America.

Olasolo, Sitjar y Cia., Bogota, 74-80, Buenos Aires.—Manufacturers of knit underwear and men's and women's cotton stockings. Operate 25 stitching machines, and employ some 60 operatives in plant, making a cheap product. Nationality doubtful, probably Turkish.

Torretta y Cia., Don Cristobal, 523-541, Buenos Aires.—A French concern manufacturing a good product, including knit underwear and men's and women's stockings for wholesale trade. Employ 80 hands in plant and operate 50 stitching machines. The firm has recently erected a new factory for its own use.

CORSET FACTORIES.

Emilio A. Failo, Calle Bernardo de Irigoyen, 1264, Buenos Aires.—Operates 24 machines making a cheap grade of corsets for wholesale trade. Very conservative.

Joaquin A. Rodriguez, Calle California, 1775-1785, Buenos Aires.—Largest single manufacturer of corsets in Argentina; two-story factory in industrial section of city, equipped with about 90 machines; at present operating only 24 of them, although claiming to make 18 to 20 dozens per day. Makes an ordinary article at a cheap price.

Simonetti y Montaña, Calle Universidad, 1239, Buenos Aires.—Argentine firm operating about 24 machines of American make.

Victoriano G. Viau y Cia., Calle Liniers, 351, Buenos Aires.—Very progressive concern making good grade of corsets. Operates between 20 and 30 machines, some being of latest design, 3-needle type, of American manufacture. The proprietor is of French birth but has lived in Argentina since youth. Sells product to best retail stores. Shop of two stories, operatives all girls. Buys considerable material in America; would buy more if he could get the goods he wants.

GENERAL INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS.

Manufacturing in Argentina is not all plain sailing for those engaged in it, and there are difficulties to offset the apparently large profits to be obtained. To operate on any but a very small scale requires an unproportionately large amount of capital. Thousands of

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pesos will be tied up in payments, freights, and especially in customs duties. Orders for materials have to be placed months in advance, involving judgment and foresight to avoid losses through changed market conditons, modifications in designs, etc. Disappointing delays occur in the arrival of goods and at times these cause serious losses.

Buenos Aires and the surrounding suburbs constitute the most important industrial district of Argentina. In the city itself the southern and western sections contain the most extensive manufacturing plants, while many of the local manufactories are located just across the River Riachuelo in Avellaneda and other towns to the south of the Federal capital. Land is cheaper in these places and they are also the sections where a large part of working people dwell.

SKILLED LABOR.

Employees for a factory engaged in the manufacture of wearing apparel would not be difficult to obtain. Many of the local manufacturing concerns supplement their factory operations with home work on a piecework basis, thereby eliminating certain expenses such as rentals, lighting, etc., and conserving capital which would otherwise be employed in constructions, installations, etc. This practice has gradually educated a class of workers to a general knowledge of ready-made clothing manufacture and provided a possible source of semiexperienced labor. Wages for factory work in these lines vary from 1.50 to 3 m/n ($0.64 to $1.27) per day, depending upon the ability of the employee and the nature of the work. Trade unions, although existing in some industries, are as yet not strongly organized and a "wage scale" in wearing-apparel factories is not common. Present tendencies, however, are toward more general organization of labor.

FACTORY CONSTRUCTION.

Factory construction in Argentina is generally expensive as compared with similar operations in the United States. This is due to the fact that practically all of the materials entering into such construction have to be imported, their original cost being augmented by freights, duties, and other charges before they are finally deposited on the site of the building. Rents are also higher than in the United States.

Machinery, and to a large extent materials, for manufacturing have to be imported from America or Europe, since Argentina produces practically nothing in the former line and but little in the way of textiles, etc. It is thought, however, that this condition will not always prevail, and it is probable that some day Argentina will produce much of its textile requirements.

FUEL FOR POWER.

Power for running a plant is another difficulty which a new enterprise would have to solve. At the present time coal, wood, and petroleum are almost prohibitively expensive and this condition is naturally reflected in the prices for power, whether derived from electricity, gas, or steam. Nearly all the coal used for industrial purposes in Argentina has to be imported; most of it formerly came from

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England. There are known to be extensive coal deposits in the country, especially in the western part, but on account of lack of facilities or prohibitive costs of transportation, it has not proven economical to work them. A large part of this coal, too, is considered unfit for continued use except in boiler and furnace installations especially adapted to it. Petroleum of a satisfactory quality is also found within the bounds of the Republic. Some wells are now being exploited in the southern part of the country, but their development has not yet reached a point where they can supply more than a very small fraction of the nation's demand for this combustible.

Most of the industrial enterprises now operating in Argentina are using wood for fuel. Quebracho is most commonly employed. It sells for 30 to 40 pesos ($13.40 to $17.60) per ton in Buenos Aires. There are large forests of quebracho in the northern and northeastern parts of the Republic, but transportation is inadequate and the shortage in supply keeps the price high. Nevertheless, since it became so difficult to obtain coal, many factories have substituted quebracho wood for use under their boilers.

COSTS OF PRODUCTION IN CLOTHING INDUSTRIES.

Some idea of the manufacturing costs of various lines of wearing apparel made in Argentina may be obtained from the following data, furnished by one of the leading manufacturers. Values are given in Argentina paper pesos, worth at the time the information was prepared (June, 1917) about $0.43.

MEN'S WEAR.

Articles.	Cloth used.	Cost per meter.	Making and finishing.			Cutting and overhead.	Allowed for cost.	Retail sale price.
			Coat.	Vest.	Pants.			
	Meters.	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*
Sack suit, cashmere, single breasted	3.10	3.30	6.00	1.60	1.80	2.068	24.30	38.00
Do	3.10	3.85	6.00	1.60	1.80	2.068	25.98	45.00
Do	3.10	4.50	6.50	1.70	1.90	2.220	31.80	52.00
Do	3.10	5.00	6.50	1.70	1.90	2.220	34.00	57.00
Do	3.10	5.80	7.00	1.70	1.90	2.367	37.80	60.00
Do	3.10	6.30	7.00	1.70	1.90	2.367	39.35	65.00
Do	3.10	6.60	7.00	1.70	1.90	2.367	41.80	75.00
Sack suit, cashmere, double breasted	3.25	3.30	6.50	1.70	1.90	2.220	28.06	50.00
Do	3.20	5.80	7.80	1.70	1.90	2.308	39.70	65.00
Dress suit, cashmere	3.20	7.19	13.00	1.90	2.10	3.740	50.58	90.00
Tourist coat and trousers	3.50	4.92	6.70	.....	1.90	1.890	32.48	55.00
Tourist coat and breeches	3.50	4.92	6.70	.....	2.50	2.024	33.40	58.00
Smoking jacket	1.75	3.65	5.50	.....	.....	1.210	15.67	28.00
Dressing gown	2.65	5.25	6.00	.....	.....	1.320	27.46	45.00
Overcoat, double breasted	2.60	5.90	11.20	.....	.....	2.464	43.60	85.00
Overcoat, fancy, single	2.60	4.40	8.50	.....	.....	1.800	28.80	46.90
Overcoat, raglan style	3.20	4.80	10.50	.....	.....	2.300	39.90	75.00
Overcoat, single breasted	2.60	7.50	9.50	.....	.....	2.000	43.70	80.00
Do	2.60	8.40	9.80	.....	.....	2.000	47.48	85.00
Ulster, double breasted	3.25	4.70	7.70	.....	.....	1.700	31.70	70.00
Trousers, cashmere	1.20	3.50	.....	.....	1.90	.420	7.20	12.50
Do	1.20	4.30	.....	.....	1.90	.420	8.16	15.00
Do	1.20	5.20	.....	.....	2.00	.440	9.36	19.00
Trousers, corduroy or fustian	2.75	1.10	.....	.....	1.50	.330	5.93	12.50
Breeches, corduroy or fustian	2.90	1.12	.....	.....	2.60	.570	7.70	12.50
Breeches, khaki serge	2.85	1.50	.....	.....	2.60	.570	8.90	15.50
Breeches, extra wide, cashmere	1.40	3.50	.....	.....	2.60	.570	9.60	17.00
Do	1.40	5.00	.....	.....	2.80	.620	12.00	21.00
Bombachas, corduroy	3.00	1.12	.....	.....	1.40	.300	6.17	14.50
Bombachas, cashmere	1.40	3.50	.....	.....	1.50	.330	7.80	15.50
Vest, fancy	.75	2.40	.....	2.10	.....	.460	6.10	12.00
Vest, for servant's use	.80	3.50	.....	2.60	.....	.550	7.30	14.50
Vest, for dress suit	.80	6.60	.....	2.20	.....	.490	10.50	17.00

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MEN'S WEAR—Continued.

Articles.	Cloth per dozen.	Cost per meter.	Making up per dozen.	Buttonholes per dozen.	Ironing per dozen.	Cutting, etc., each.	Allowed for cost.	Retail sale price.
	Meters.	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*
Shirt, flannel, with collar, negligee bosom	37.94	0.46	5.50	1.05	0.60	0.263	2.44	4.00
Shirt, zephyr cloth	38.90	.58	5.75	1.05	.60	.272	2.93	4.75
Shirt, soft cuffs, no collar	37.00	.58	5.85	1.65	1.08	.315	2.99	4.75
Shirt, zephyr and silk	38.50	1.10	7.60	1.65	1.20	.385	4.94	8.50
Do	38.90	1.35	7.30	2.15	1.32	.396	5.22	8.50
Shirt, zephyr cloth, soft cuffs, negligee front	38.50	.52	6.60	1.65	2.70	.40	3.16	4.90
Shirt, stiff cuffs, pleated front	38.60	.39	7.00	1.05	3.30	.41	2.80	4.20
Do	40.20	.58	8.00	1.05	3.30	.45	3.59	6.25
Shirt, Jap silk, double cuffs, negligee bosom	43.90	1.50	8.60	2.65	3.60	.55	7.41	12.00
Nightshirt, flannelette	46.20	.46	5.60	1.05	1.08	.26	2.80	4.75
Nightshirt, collar, faconne cloth	45.50	.75	6.15	1.05	1.08	.30	4.00	6.00
Nightshirt, trimmed, faconne cloth	45.20	.75	6.80	1.05	1.08	.33	4.25	6.50
Nightshirt, collar, linen	41.00	1.38	6.75	1.05	1.20	.33	5.95	9.50
Nightshirt, trimmed, madapollam cloth	45.20	.73	7.10	1.05	1.08	.34	4.25	6.75
Underdrawers, long, zephyr cloth	27.74	.57	2.85	1.05	.72	.17	2.04	2.95
Underdrawers, bramant cloth, long	28.40	.31	2.80	1.05	.84	.17	1.50	2.25
Underdrawers, twilled cloth, long	23.50	.48	3.00	1.05	.90	.18	1.68	2.95
Underdrawers, zephyr cloth, long	26.60	.39	3.15	1.05	.84	.19	1.69	2.50
Underdrawers, flannelette, long	27.50	.50	3.15	1.05	.84	.19	1.95	2.95
Underdrawers, faconne cloth, short	19.60	.75	3.25	1.05	.78	.19	1.98	2.95
Underdrawers, bombasi cloth, long	27.50	.67	3.55	1.05	.90	.20	2.47	3.75
Underdrawers, faconne cloth, long	26.20	.74	3.85	1.05	.90	.21	2.53	3.75
	Each.		*Each.*		*Each.*			
Pajamas, flannelette	5.40	.36	1.60	.....	.12	.48	4.19	5.75
Pajamas, Jap silk	6.10	1.50	1.75	.....	.15	.84	13.48	22.00
Pajamas, wool	3.55	3.98	4.00	.....	.....	1.76	24.03	40.00
	Dozen.		*Dozen.*					
Neckties, silk, four-in-hand	3.10	1.54	1.00	.....	.....	.07	.60	1.00
Neckties, better grade	3.15	2.45	1.10	.....	.....	.08	.79	1.50
Neckties, fine quality	3.35	3.70	1.10	.....	.....	.08	1.21	2.50
Neckties, special quality	3.35	3.80	1.10	.....	.....	.08	1.31	3.00
Do	3.20	4.63	1.10	.....	.....	.08	1.47	3.00
Do	3.20	5.20	1.10	.....	.....	.08	1.62	3.50
Neckties, extra quality	3.20	7.17	1.10	.....	.....	.08	2.15	4.50
Do	4.30	8.35	1.10	.....	.....	.08	3.21	6.50
Neckties, fancy, for sport	1.50	1.50	1.50	.....	.....	.10	.50	.75
Do	1.50	1.50	1.50	.....	.....	.10	.49	.75
Neckties, with collar or not	1.50	2.20	1.50	.....	.....	.10	.60	1.00
Neckties, with collar or not, fine	1.50	2.90	1.60	.....	.....	.12	.82	1.50
Neckties, special	1.50	5.52	1.60	.....	.....	.12	1.14	2.00
Neckties, silk bows	1.00	1.55	.80	.....	.....	.06	.28	.60
Neckties, silk bows, better grade	1.00	2.20	.85	.....	.....	.06	.38	.70
Neckties, silk bows, fine grade	1.60	2.90	.90	.....	.....	.07	.47	1.00
Neckties, silk bows, special grade	1.00	6.30	.90	.....	.....	.07	.69	1.40
Neckties, silk bows, open ends	1.10	6.50	1.10	.....	.....	.08	.79	1.70
Neckties, white dress, batiste	1.10	1.10	1.00	.....	.....	.08	.30	.70
Neckties, plastron form, fine silk, with collar or not	1.90	2.50	1.80	.....	.....	.14	.88	2.00

BOYS' WEAR.

Articles.	Cloth used	Cost per meter.	Making.			Cutting, etc.	Allowed for cost.	Retail sale price.
			Coat.	Vest.	Pants.			
	Meters.	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*
Suit, serge, for winter wear, lined	2.00	3.69	4.10	0.90	0.65	1.70	17.80	30.00-35.00
Suit, Dutch cut, corduroy	1.70	1.40	.70	.....	.....	.21	3.54	6.00- 8.00
Sailor blouse, cheviot	1.05	2.50	1.05	.....	.50	.47	6.02	10.50-13.00
Sack suit, cheviot	1.55	3.04	1.60	.....	.60	.66	9.28	16.50-20.00
Norfolk suit, cashmere	1.85	2.72	1.55	.....	.65	.66	9.44	16.50-20.00
Norfolk, gray, cashmere	1.40	2.90	2.70	.....	.60	.99	10.34	18.50-24.00
Norfolk, fancy cut, cashmere	1.61	3.03	2.70	.....	.60	.99	11.22	20.00-25.00
Overcoat, cashmere	1.55	3.58	4.15	.....	.....	1.25	12.90	24.00-30.00
Sailor capes	1.05	2.38	1.00	.....	.....	.30	4.29	8.00-11.00
Sailor capes, cheviot, gray	1.05	3.71	1.00	.....	.....	.30	5.40	10.00-14.50
Sailor capes, cheviot, blue	1.05	2.65	1.20	.....	.....	.54	6.70	12.00-16.00
Bombachas, wide trousers, corduroy, no lining	1.00	1.45	.....	.....	.40	.12	2.30	4.00- 6.00
Bombachas, cashmere, no lining	.50	2.70	.....	.....	.40	.12	2.31	4.00- 6.00
Do	.50	2.55	.....	.....	.40	.12	2.36	4.00- 6.00
Bombachas, velvet	.95	2.55	.....	.....	.50	.15	2.78	4.80- 6.00
Bombachas, serge, lined	.50	3.65	.....	.....	.55	.17	3.05	5.50- 8.00

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WOMEN'S WEAR.

Articles.	Cloth used.	Cost per meter.	Making.	Trimming, etc.	Ironing, etc.	Cutting, etc.	Allowed for cost.	Retail sale price.
	Meters.	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*
Tailored suit	6.20	2.21	9.00	.....	.....	3.10	31.36	55.00
Do	6.55	2.89	9.20	.....	.....	3.15	33.42	55.00
Do	8.40	2.63	12.20	.....	.....	4.15	48.65	85.00
Do	7.80	2.63	16.00	.....	.....	5.50	53.00	90.00
Do	6.60	3.45	16.00	.....	.....	5.50	56.85	100.00
Do	6.10	4.12	15.50	.....	.....	5.35	59.53	110.00
Fancy gown	5.80	3.45	14.00	.....	.....	4.70	46.35	85.00
Do	5.00	4.64	14.00	.....	.....	4.70	47.90	88.00
Cashmere skirt	2.60	.85	1.50	.....	.....	.51	5.42	10.50
House cap, imitation silk	.60	.45	.30	.....	.....	.09	.98	1.50
House cap, tulle	.60	1.80	.60	.....	.....	.18	2.20	4.50
House cap, cambric	.60	.90	1.50	.....	.....	.45	2.90	5.50
House cap, crêpe	.60	2.50	1.90	.....	.....	.57	3.20	6.50
House cap, lace	.....	1.80	3.50	.....	.....	1.05	6.35	12.00
Pajamas, zephyr cloth	6.00	.44	2.00	0.50	0.10	.80	6.30	10.00
Pajamas, zephyr and silk	6.00	.80	2.50	.50	.20	.96	9.50	19.00
Pajamas, fine muslin	6.00	1.10	4.50	.50	.20	1.56	14.36	28.00
Pajamas, silk, 0.75 wide	6.00	1.50	9.00	.30	.20	2.85	22.00	45.00
Corset cover, cotton	.75	.60	.50	.....	.05	.17	2.17	4.00
Corset cover, silk pongee	.80	2.20	2.00	.50	.10	.80	8.10	15.00
Corset cover, bramant cloth	.75	.31	.15	.15	.05	.10	.75	1.20
Corset cover, nainsook	.75	.80	.50	.....	.05	.16	2.56	5.00
Petticoat, bramant	3.50	.32	.80	.....	.10	.28	3.50	6.00
Petticoat, nainsook	3.50	.80	1.00	.....	.10	.33	6.90	15.00
Petticoat, fine bombasí	4.00	.70	.80	1.00	.05	.55	9.00	17.50
Chemise, cheap bramant	2.40	.21	.11	.....	.03	.05	.70	.95
Chemise, better bramant	2.45	.31	.07	.23	.04	.09	1.15	1.60
Chemise, good bramant	2.45	.31	.20	.25	.06	.15	2.00	3.00
Do	2.45	.31	.30	.....	.05	.10	1.45	2.50
Nightgowns, bramant	3.60	.21	.30	.15	.06	.15	1.65	2.80
Do	3.60	.31	.40	.20	.06	.19	2.00	3.50
Nightgowns, flannelette	3.70	.62	.40	.50	.06	.28	4.20	6.50
Drawers, bombasí or flannelette	1.85	.45	.35	.20	.05	.18	1.67	2.90
Do	1.85	.45	.20	.10	.05	.10	1.40	2.30
Drawers, flannel	1.20	2.00	.40	.90	.05	.40	4.27	7.50
Combinations, bramant	3.50	.31	.85	.....	.05	.27	3.30	6.00
Do	3.70	.31	1.25	.....	.10	.40	3.92	8.00
Do	3.70	.31	2.00	.....	.20	.66	7.20	15.00
Combinations, nainsook	3.70	.31	2.00	.....	.20	.66	8.00	16.00
Apron, bramant cloth	5.00	.30	.70	.....	.10	.24	2.76	4.50
Do	1.80	.31	.45	.....	.05	.19	1.71	3.50
Apron, bramant, with bosom	2.00	.31	.40	.....	.05	.18	1.50	2.90
Apron, percale	5.40	.33	.90	.10	.....	.38	3.18	5.50
Do	2.30	.33	.40	.....	.....	.15	1.39	2.25
Do	2.10	.33	.40	.....	.....	.12	1.30	1.90
Do	5.60	.33	.90	.10	.....	.38	3.22	6.50
Apron, brin cloth	5.80	.52	1.00	.10	.....	.41	4.70	9.80
Wrapper, bombasí cloth	7.50	.44	.40	.....	.....	.14	3.95	5.80
Do	7.50	.44	.50	.....	.....	.18	4.50	6.50
Do	7.50	.48	.60	.....	.....	.23	4.98	7.00
Do	7.50	.50	.70	.40	.....	.42	5.60	8.50
Do	7.75	.53	.90	1.60	.....	.95	7.72	14.50
Wrapper, flannel	7.30	1.70	2.00	.....	.....	.76	15.80	29.00
Skirt, liberty silk	5.70	1.22	1.20	.30	.....	.57	9.19	12.50
Skirt, satin	1.70	.78	.50	.....	.....	.17	2.10	3.50
Do	2.50	.78	.80	.40	.....	.41	3.60	6.50
Do	4.50	.42	.40	.30	.....	.22	2.97	4.80
Skirt, silk	4.00	1.95	1.20	.....	.....	.45	9.80	19.00
Skirt, silk under	3.50	1.80	.90	.25	.....	.44	8.20	15.00
Shirt waist, crêpe	2.05	3.03	5.00	3.75	.....	3.41	18.62	29.00
Do	2.45	2.67	1.50	.65	.....	.82	9.75	22.00
Shirt waist, pongee	3.50	.80	1.00	.....	.....	.38	4.30	9.50
Shirt waist, flannel	3.50	1.80	1.50	3.00	.....	1.71	10.90	20.00
Do	3.50	1.40	1.70	.45	.....	.85	8.00	17.90
Do	2.60	1.60	1.00	.....	.....	.38	6.14	15.00
Shirt waist, flannelette	2.60	.40	1.00	.....	.....	.38	2.58	5.50
Shirt waist, bombasí cloth	2.60	.33	.40	.....	.....	.15	1.30	2.90
Blouse, sport, wool	2.74	3.84	3.00	.....	.....	1.14	16.40	25.00
Do	2.74	3.84	3.00	.....	.....	1.14	16.40	25.00

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YOUNG LADIES' WEAR.

Articles.	Cloth used.	Cost per meter.	Making.	Trimming.	Cutting and overhead.	Allowed for cost.	Retail sale price.
	Meters.	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*	*Pesos.*
Gown, velvet	8.70	2.20	8.00	.....	2.40	35.00	65.00
Gown, wool	4.50	2.90	8.50	.....	2.55	27.10	50.00
Gown, velvet	6.60	2.11	10.00	.....	3.00	36.88	65.00
Gown, velvet, embroidered	8.50	2.06	7.00	3.00	3.00	37.73	68.00
Gown, wool	4.60	4.07	10.00	.....	3.00	38.50	68.00
Gown, serge	4.50	2.68	12.00	.....	3.60	31.60	56.00
Gown, serge, embroidered	5.25	3.22	10.00	8.00	5.40	44.50	80.00
Gown, velvet, embroidered	7.50	2.11	10.00	16.00	7.80	58.30	100.00
Gown, silk, embroidered	6.00	2.91	14.00	13.00	8.10	59.00	110.00
Tailored suit	5.00	4.07	10.00	.....	3.00	41.00	75.00
Skirt, separate, wool serge	2.80	1.75	2.20	.....	.65	9.50	18.00
Blouses, woolen	2.35	1.63	2.00	.....	.60	6.80	13.00
Cloak, rain-proof	3.50	4.65	6.00	.....	1.80	28.00	50.00

LITTLE GIRLS' WEAR.

Dresses, bombasi cloth	2.20	0.45	1.05	.....	0.30	2.49	4.50
Do	2.40	.45	1.25	.....	.35	2.90	5.20
Do	3.50	.46	1.25	.....	.35	3.70	6.50
Do	3.75	.46	1.50	.....	.45	4.15	7.20
Dresses, cheviot, for school	4.00	1.46	2.25	.....	.68	9.88	18.00
Dresses, serge, for school	4.30	2.07	2.25	.....	.68	12.85	24.00
Dresses, serge, sailor suit	2.30	2.94	2.60	.....	.78	13.36	24.00
Dresses, woolen goods	2.80	4.50	3.65	.....	1.10	20.00	36.00
Do	3.00	2.55	6.30	.....	1.90	18.66	32.00
Do	1.65	3.71	8.00	.....	2.40	19.90	36.00
Tailored suit	2.96	3.75	6.00	.....	1.80	24.41	45.00
Cloaks, woolen	2.23	3.50	3.70	.....	1.10	14.53	26.00
Cloaks, plush	1.40	3.99	4.00	.....	1.20	14.60	28.00
Do	2.35	20.00	4.50	.....	1.35	57.53	110.00
Cloaks, woolen	2.88	3.99	5.00	.....	1.50	23.28	40.00
Cloaks, velvet	6.80	3.55	6.00	.....	1.80	42.27	75.00
Cloaks, velvet, fine	6.75	6.97	14.00	.....	4.20	90.04	160.00
Skirts, separate	2.10	2.50	1.50	.....	.45	8.14	15.00
Coats, naval, cheviot	2.20	1.46	4.50	.....	1.35	11.00	20.00
Capes, rain-proof	3.30	4.65	3.50	.....	1.10	20.90	38.00

BABIES' WEAR.

Dress, short, bombasi	1.40	0.83	0.30	0.50	0.24	2.25	3.50
Do	2.00	.61	.60	.....	.18	2.35	3.50
Dress, velvet	2.00	2.20	1.30	.85	.65	8.00	15.00
Do	2.00	2.20	2.00	.....	.60	8.00	15.00
Do	2.20	2.35	1.80	.....	.54	9.43	17.00
Do	2.50	2.50	2.60	.10	.81	10.69	20.00
Dress, flannel	1.23	1.59	.40	1.00	.42	4.05	7.50
Dress, woolen goods, embroidered	1.58	1.85	2.00	1.70	1.11	10.98	20.00
Little suits, trimmed	1.70	.83	.50	.15	.20	2.41	4.00
Little suits, trimmed, bombasi	1.45	.83	1.00	.....	.30	2.76	4.50
Little suits, velvet	1.82	2.20	2.60	.....	.78	8.78	16.00
Cloaks, wool	.85	2.60	2.80	.....	.84	7.29	12.00
Do	1.10	3.60	2.60	.....	.78	8.02	14.50
Do	1.00	4.90	4.50	.....	1.35	13.73	24.00
Do	1.10	4.50	3.00	.....	.90	9.93	18.00
Cloaks, velvet	2.50	2.20	2.80	.....	.84	10.00	18.00
Undershirts, nainsook	.38	.41	.10	.....	.03	.31	.55
Swaddling cloths, bramant cloth	.83	.29	.025	.....	.008	.27	.50
Swaddling cloths, brilliantine	.84	.53	.025	.....	.008	.48	.90
Diapers, flannelette	.69	.34	.10	.15	.075	.57	.95
Undershirts, linen	.55	1.50	.20	.20	.12	1.37	2.50

In the foregoing table the columns showing specific operations represent the actual amounts expended for the work. The column next to the last does not give the sum of the various costs, but is the maximum allowance to the factory superintendent for making the article. Practically all of the articles were made at a cost lower than the maximum allowance. This means a larger profit for the manufacturers, who generally allow the superintendent a certain percentage of any savings thus effected.

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FOREIGN TRADE STATISTICS.

TOTAL IMPORTS BY COUNTRIES.

The official statistics of Argentina's foreign commerce for the five years 1912 to 1916, inclusive, show that exports have increased from $463,577,562 in the former year to $524,328,735 in the latter, while imports, although showing a favorable tendency prior to the outbreak of war in Europe, register a considerable falling off, from $371,383,597 in 1912 to $209,799,995 in 1916. These facts account for Argentina's greatly increased favorable trade balance, which in 1912 amounted to $92,193,965 and in 1916 reached $314,528,740.

In 1912 seven of the countries shipping goods to Argentina sent more than $10,000,000 worth of goods each. Great Britain led the list with $114,515,703. Germany was second with $61,703,550, and the United States held third position with $57,007,507. France, Italy, Belgium, and Spain were the other four nations making up the seven. In 1916 there were only six countries in this class. Germany and Belgium dropped out and Brazil was included. The United States assumed first place in total imports, with Great Britain second and Italy third. A comparative list of the nations shipping merchandise to Argentina in 1912 and 1916, with the values of the goods in United States currency, follows:

Countries.	1912	1916	Countries.	1912	1916
United Kingdom	$114,515,703	$59,140,014	Sweden	$2,210,110	$1,939,273
Germany	61,703,550	338,598	Canada	2,186,938	1,098,779
United States	57,007,507	61,299,085	Switzerland	2,106,981	1,947,943
France	36,301,927	14,474,093	Paraguay	2,153,043	1,995,471
Italy	21,350,101	20,591,199	Norway	1,417,386	803,128
Belgium	19,662,165	266,784	Cuba	1,066,691	1,276,713
Spain	11,510,816	13,005,704	Japan	747,764	1,140,932
Brazil	9,213,082	11,481,264	Mexico	13,240	6,291,782
British possessions	5,879,868	5,451,624	Other countries	3,240,880	2,756,503
Austria-Hungary	3,365,116	9,741			
Netherlands	3,321,208	2,130,478	Total	371,383,597	209,799,995
Uruguay	2,409,521	2,472,887			

In analyzing these figures it will be noted that in this period no country seems to have materially increased its exports to Argentina at the expense of those others whose shipments have fallen off. Between 1912 and 1916 there were reductions in round numbers of $55,000,000 from Great Britain, $61,000,000 from Germany, $22,000,000 from France, $11,000,000 from Italy, and $19,000,000 from Belgium, while the only important increases were in the cases of the United States and Mexico and amounted to only a little more than $10,000,000. The large difference between the totals for these years,

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less a certain small percentage which must be allowed for increased domestic industrial activity, representing roughly the extent to which the Argentine public has been economizing in its consumption of the world's merchandise during the present crisis.

TOTAL EXPORTS BY COUNTRIES.

Exports, after the first few months of the war, have shown an upward trend. Meat products, wool, and cereals form the leading articles of export from Argentina and the large and steadily growing demands of the allied belligerents have furnished a constant market for them. In 1912 Great Britain was the leading buyer of Argentina's export commodities with purchases amounting to $117,125,290; Germany was second with $52,135,343, while the United States stood fifth on the list with $31,256,457. In all, there were eight countries taking more than $10,000,000 worth each. In 1916 there were only six countries in this category. Great Britain still held its place as the premier buyer with $154,163,865 and the United States was in second place with purchases amounting to $109,516,198. Germany and Belgium no longer appeared in the list. Following is a comparative table for the years 1912 and 1916 showing the countries of destination of Argentine exports during those years and the value of the exports to each. All values have been reduced to United States currency.

Countries.	1912	1916	Countries.	1912	1913
United Kingdom	$117,125,290	$154,163,865	Norway	$1,741,575	$3,983,576
Germany	52,135,343	.....	Sweden	1,443,688	9,731,394
Belgium	35,944,187	.....	Paraguay	1,177,227	2,883,163
France	34,790,188	62,471,808	Denmark	831,431	5,880,670
United States	31,256,457	109,516,198	Portugal	547,173	1,312,712
Brazil	21,853,739	23,640,788	Russia	363,460	2,846,925
Italy	20,407,783	26,198,271	French possessions	71,512	2,426,564
Netherlands	15,466,270	26,529,205	To order	110,879,887	72,950,371
Uruguay	4,549,473	6,280,552	Other countries	4,370,052	3,761,788
Spain	3,457,107	8,262,948			
Austria-Hungary	2,795,410	.....	Total	463,577,562	524,328,735
Chile	2,370,310	1,487,937			

The following table shows for the five-year period the trend of Argentine imports and exports and the trade balance in favor of the country:

Years.	Exports.	Imports.	Favorable balance.
1912	$463,577,562	$371,383,597	$92,193,965
1913	466,581,887	406,605,203	59,976,684
1914	337,030,246	262,304,273	74,725,973
1915	538,740,820	218,951,487	319,789,333
1916	524,328,735	209,799,995	314,528,740

IMPORTS OF WEARING APPAREL.

The following statistics show the imports into Argentina of articles covered by this report, their value and the country from which imported, during the years 1913, 1914, and 1915. The figures for

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1913 indicate the import business done in these lines under normal trade conditions, while the statistics for the years 1914 and 1915 show the effects of the war on Argentina's commerce in textile and allied lines.

Textiles and manufactures thereof constitute over 21 per cent of Argentina's imports, and in 1913 amounted to about $86,500,000 in value. Fifteen per cent of the value of this classification was for items covered by this report. Of the total value of importations of all classes of merchandise during 1913 ($406,605,203) about 3.3 per cent was for wearing apparel, exclusive of leather footwear.

In the arrangement of the statistics, which are compiled from the official records of the Argentine Government, values of imports are given in detail for the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and France, the remaining amounts being grouped together under the heading "Other countries." Figures under the heading "Quantity" represent weight in pounds unless otherwise specified in connection with the name of the article. All values are shown in United States currency.

MEN'S WEAR.

Articles.	Year.	Quantity.[1]	Total value.	Value by countries.				
				United States.	Great Britain.	Germany.	France.	Other countries.
Belts:								
Cotton (dozen in 1915)	1913	11,525	$7,583	$5	$441	$4,798	$800	$1,539
	1914	9,288	6,110	9	1,435	1,442	1,637	1,587
	1915	276	400	.....	370	.....	30	.....
Leather (dozen)	1913	5,556	12,948	449	5,715	1,064	5,496	224
	1914	2,849	6,780	163	3,169	371	3,030	47
	1915	1,659	4,014	585	1,846	10	1,545	28
Collars: Cotton or linen (dozen)	1913	51,763	104,897	673	91,600	9,307	2,727	590
	1914	35,892	72,734	134	68,823	1,002	1,313	1,462
	1915	22,539	45,675	28	45,114	10	33	490
Collars, cuffs, and bosoms:								
Paper (dozen)	1913	674,585	98,165	.....	.....	96,404	609	1,152
	1914	518,853	75,544	.....	.....	65,316	801	9,427
	1915	323,177	47,285	390	1,085	33,344	940	11,526
Celluloid (dozen)	1913	46,261	26,097	5,848	9,144	9,258	1,747	100
	1914	29,477	15,092	2,230	5,451	6,464	697	250
	1915	6,594	3,328	1,305	1,262	.....	232	529
Cuffs: Cotton or linen (dozen)	1913	3,904	13,185	.....	8,626	3,947	463	149
	1914	554	1,871	7	1,834	.....	23	7
	1915	637	2,150	.....	2,107	.....	3	40
Neckties: Silk or mixtures of	1913	8,005	45,351	1,459	16,013	2,867	20,224	4,788
	1914	4,347	25,435	45	10,296	2,090	9,555	3,449
	1915	3,649	24,038	16	11,051	860	9,597	2,514
Ponchos:								
Cotton	1913	124,542	81,942	.....	4,132	26,275	2,581	48,954
	1914	39,690	26,114	.....	231	11,823	244	13,816
	1915	19,661	12,154	.....	.....	4,638	.....	7,516
Wool	1913	50,067	45,095	.....	5,205	25,257	673	13,960
	1914	21,953	20,269	60	3,346	11,871	379	4,613
	1915	4,477	4,163	.....	334	3,823	6	.....
Shirts: Cotton (dozen)[2]	1913	3,427	29,637	2,745	13,791	1,382	11,278	441
	1914	1,761	15,448	673	10,322	1,059	973	2,421
	1915	989	8,188	302	6,335	54	1,091	406
Suspenders (dozen)	1913	125,476	213,483	45,312	17,836	83,948	36,613	29,774
	1914	57,616	92,978	20,635	10,209	33,948	17,422	10,704
	1915	51,086	86,689	53,440	6,231	3,960	14,585	8,473

[1] Figures represent weight, in pounds, unless otherwise specified with name of article.
[2] Includes a small number of linen shirts, varying from 2 to 5 per cent of total.

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WOMEN'S WEAR.

Articles.	Year.	Quantity.	Total value.	Value by countries.				
				United States.	Great Britain.	Germany.	France.	Other countries.
Corsets:								
Cotton (dozen)	1913	7,128	$63,095	$25,618	$1,838	$8,746	$19,660	$7,233
	1914	5,167	52,766	24,253	8,365	2,497	14,409	3,242
	1915	4,645	46,373	29,968	4,060	524	9,521	2,300
Silk (dozen)	1913	101	4,873	386	96	627	3,221	543
	1914	163	7,864	193	2,316	145	4,583	627
	1915	113	5,452	1,351	1,448	.....	2,653	.....
Lace:								
Cotton	1913	859,645	1,445,775	5,694	542,148	507,820	121,806	268,307
	1914	440,114	748,983	1,047	275,557	239,850	65,062	167,467
	1915	292,450	500,426	540	185,398	29,950	80,762	203,786
Silk	1913	12,962	79,747	58	11,984	35,064	32,002	619
	1914	6,806	39,553	.....	9,991	19,129	10,219	214
	1915	2,820	17,696	173	6,700	2,772	7,830	221
Other materials	1913	12,931	56,968	.....	6,301	4,839	7,160	38,658
	1914	6,122	30,299	.....	7,383	6,909	2,691	13,316
	1915	7,768	34,851	38	3,103	1,460	3,435	26,815
Ribbon:								
Cotton	1913	678,785	366,744	449	35,652	156,904	44,993	128,746
	1914	362,821	185,096	706	16,407	57,757	23,160	87,066
	1915	368,770	166,545	2,676	19,118	9,485	24,382	110,884
Silk	1913	165,794	924,964	460	23,376	178,134	599,271	123,723
	1914	101,670	554,692	1,095	10,719	114,136	237,802	90,940
	1915	104,108	579,700	3,453	16,767	15,860	357,934	185,685
Other materials	1913	77,492	38,267	53	1,681	12,804	15,299	8,430
	1914	31,114	16,536	.....	59	4,577	9,697	2,203
	1915	24,761	14,638	196	397	441	8,919	4,685
Shawls or mufflers:								
Cotton	1913	175,586	77,018	.....	1,877	1,458	2,702	70,981
	1914	78,876	34,598	.....	1,216	1,156	2,615	29,611
	1915	93,251	40,933	.....	1,724	227	357	38,625
Wool or mixtures of	1913	103,375	123,689	.....	6,412	21,400	36,591	59,286
	1914	53,378	64,404	.....	5,437	8,417	22,663	27,887
	1915	14,799	16,144	.....	324	579	6,417	8,824
Trimmings:								
Cotton	1913	78,342	77,723	.....	4,297	30,558	16,538	26,330
	1914	31,719	38,785	238	2,675	14,489	8,792	12,591
	1915	12,755	16,523	150	1,353	1,511	4,279	9,230
Silk or mixtures of	1913	73,330	250,735	441	12,983	180,913	37,596	18,802
	1914	25,898	89,879	452	5,131	67,783	11,896	4,617
	1915	3,619	12,354	18	2,041	2,562	5,499	2,234
Veils and scarfs: Silk	1913	15,952	71,522	.....	4,538	5,204	55,480	6,300
	1914	3,548	14,158	14	1,009	1,486	10,617	1,032
	1915	1,608	9,021	10	387	58	8,234	332
Wrappers: Cotton	1913	1,051	876	.....	38	811	27	.....
	1914	1,856	1,557	21	.....	1,406	130	.....
	1915	105	87	.....	.....	87	.....	.....

GENERAL WEAR.

Articles made up:								
Cotton (boxes)	1913	13,378	$989,840	$8,386	$167,951	$301,556	$377,545	$134,602
	1914	7,894	761,504	2,492	132,505	296,125	256,906	73,476
	1915	.....	412,066	24,127	72,366	83,128	174,312	48,088
Silk (boxes)	1913	5,919	571,206	1,055	112,433	54,761	396,608	6,349
	1914	4,082	394,047	598	79,851	23,537	266,874	23,187
	1915	.....	167,868	2,415	39,720	2,595	110,466	12,672
Wool (pounds)	1913	27,363	1,262,601	3,659	257,606	549,604	346,914	104,818
Wool (boxes)	1913	12,589						
Wool (pounds)	1914	16,229	895,060	2,316	154,512	370,181	263,185	103,866
Wool (boxes)	1914	8,949						
Wool (pounds)	1915	.....	244,030	4,301	92,385	24,153	59,894	67,297
Articles manufactured, not otherwise mentioned:								
Cotton (boxes)	1913	1,341	129,482	2,010	28,650	59,841	25,904	13,077
	1914	830	80,205	3,868	14,510	34,563	14,567	12,697
	1915	.....	34,997	4,229	9,060	4,761	7,272	9,675
Silk (boxes)	1913	1,976	190,763	4,717	11,645	30,798	58,833	84,770
	1914	1,068	104,151	575	10,976	19,384	35,661	37,555
	1915	.....	60,993	2,652	5,983	1,821	33,771	16,766
Wool (pounds)	1913	16,588	12,376	.....	5,421	3,049	3,227	679
	1914	1,337	1,624	.....	441	450	45	688
	1915	2,956	1,736	851	579	68	170	68

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GENERAL WEAR—Continued.

Articles.	Year.	Quantity.	Total value.	Value by countries.				
				United States.	Great Britain.	Germany.	France.	Other countries.
Garters:								
Cotton (dozen pairs)	1913	29,010	$13,997	$5,852	$763	$3,661	$1,815	$1,906
	1914	17,005	8,204	3,563	774	896	895	1,076
	1915	27,035	13,043	9,464	164	723	173	2,519
Silk	1913	23,918	22,379	7,091	3,182	1,455	8,897	1,754
	1914	10,645	10,214	4,095	725	1,132	3,745	649
	1915	6,932	13,592	8,418	1,111	407	2,292	1,364
Gloves:								
Cotton	1913	42,145	65,982	.....	2,013	61,278	1,478	1,213
	1914	38,660	55,308	.....	2,019	51,452	1,032	805
	1915	6,135	8,100	771	1,866	1,294	3,104	1,065
Leather	1913	21,571	141,843	50	48,907	12,588	79,263	1,035
	1914	17,580	119,707	6,663	22,762	13,592	75,760	930
	1915	6,113	42,866	231	13,514	968	26,356	1,797
Silk	1913	3,612	25,352	756	2,840	21,152	524	80
	1914	4,752	33,350	.....	1,852	5,898	24,951	649
	1915	1,445	10,144	1,667	4,199	1,837	1,775	656
Other materials	1913	13,756	23,189	42	1,170	20,507	874	596
	1914	10,571	16,010	165	981	11,789	2,504	571
	1915	2,560	4,212	468	283	1,819	1,616	26
Handkerchiefs:								
Cotton	1913	1,156,080	854,495	2,239	629,929	35,641	43,166	143,520
	1914	683,876	487,888	395	354,089	13,096	17,937	102,371
	1915	757,695	597,842	17,549	497,750	1,847	7,521	73,175
Silk	1913	164,656	1,008,141	159	23,482	33,831	307,653	642,986
	1914	71,236	424,090	.....	15,050	8,100	86,334	314,606
	1915	90,244	519,235	1,626	78,777	2,814	39,025	396,993
Other materials	1913	45,634	120,387	.....	82,724	10,856	12,623	14,184
	1914	23,161	81,460	10	45,913	6,142	7,155	22,240
	1915	23,324	[1] 59,149	180	47,067	3,576	3,989	4,337
Hosiery:								
Cotton	1913	1,903,915	1,903,055	3,303	31,967	1,502,750	264,553	100,482
	1914	1,295,599	1,207,565	3,085	26,695	1,027,654	183,184	66,947
	1915	1,256,831	1,267,049	487,318	26,624	389,920	95,394	267,793
Linen	1913	184,943	421,838	622	23,228	249,394	128,631	19,963
	1914	81,688	186,323	1,480	8,976	91,302	69,894	14,671
	1915	59,461	135,625	2,995	10,061	17,732	64,536	40,501
Silk	1913	13,453	118,000	25,205	24,182	41,600	25,147	1,866
	1914	9,875	86,637	24,839	23,480	16,289	21,576	453
	1915	5,478	48,057	27,000	6,117	3,772	10,769	399
Wool	1913	61,492	94,345	50	43,577	32,125	18,376	217
	1914	50,540	77,590	989	32,671	23,899	18,866	1,165
	1915	14,671	22,518	1,679	15,872	2,155	1,907	905
Other materials	1913	35,743	99,773	31,010	9,647	30,043	24,137	4,936
	1914	39,430	92,081	38,207	5,707	24,456	19,656	4,055
	1915	179,418	296,934	240,282	10,894	12,187	22,085	11,486
Raincoats and capes (number)	1913	24,328	132,507	2,738	103,246	10,975	11,168	4,380
	1914	18,109	91,206	191	65,593	17,526	6,829	1,067
	1915	6,650	34,509	1,085	29,198	2,228	1,457	541
Suits, ready made (boxes)	1913	2,772	296,755	3,569	106,900	69,449	109,607	7,230
	1914	2,926	282,318	343	71,976	97,661	107,531	4,807
	1915	.....	139,611	4,819	70,991	846	61,207	1,748
Underwear:								
Drawers	1913	761	978	.....	306	306	336	30
	1914	325	421	.....	361	18	12	30
	1915	24	32	.....	17	.....	15	.....
Shirts—								
Cotton	1913	58,634	60,021	.....	8,265	31,509	5,917	14,330
	1914	26,360	26,747	298	2,728	10,299	2,893	12,529
	1915	21,197	22,253	2,976	637	7,351	1,785	9,504
Linen	1913	12,867	29,013	.....	465	23,087	3,631	1,830
	1914	6,697	14,910	.....	275	11,987	1,612	1,036
	1915	7,768	17,397	.....	535	340	6,346	10,176
Silk	1913	57	501	.....	443	.....	58	.....
	1914	55	482	.....	58	.....	290	134
	1915	13	116	.....	.....	.....	39	77
Wool	1913	12,320	18,351	19	3,710	6,555	2,994	5,073
	1914	4,510	6,921	.....	3,281	1,761	275	1,604
	1915	2,325	3,495	.....	557	.....	831	2,107
Hats:[2]								
Boys' caps (dozen)	1913	28,776	102,825	1,269	47,450	9,399	8,856	35,851
	1914	31,160	105,318	361	44,970	10,138	19,753	30,096
	1915	8,441	29,307	52	16,940	50	5,446	6,819
Cotton (dozen)	1913	7,783	25,781	.....	8,304	791	11,108	5,578
	1914	5,919	20,033	.....	11,392	995	4,746	2,900
	1915	3,134	10,918	.....	4,830	.....	3,787	2,301

[1] Valuation changed.

[2] The rather large amounts under "Other countries" generally represent shipments from Italy, that country being one of the foremost in hat exportations to South America.

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GENERAL WEAR—Continued.

Articles.	Year.	Quantity.	Total value.	Value by countries.				
				United States.	Great Britain.	Germany.	France.	Other countries.
Hats—Continued.								
Felt, hard (dozen)	1913	160	$1,080	$40	$228	.....	$7	$805
	1914	166	1,120	.....	723	.....	115	282
	1915	74	500	.....	135	.....	.....	365
Felt, soft (dozen)	1913	12,270	41,440	7	3,585	$3,840	700	33,308
	1914	7,656	25,167	.....	700	58	3,218	21,191
	1915	2,548	8,605	20	331	324	760	7,170
High (dozen)	1913	245	9,457	.....	8,028	154	1,275	.....
	1914	138	5,326	.....	4,400	424	502	.....
	1915	63	2,431	.....	2,276	.....	155	.....
Nutria, vicuña, beaver, or rabbit, soft (dozen)	1913	6,634	64,018	10,711	6,900	1,273	1,630	43,504
	1914	4,951	47,777	8,433	6,146	2,576	3,444	27,178
	1915	4,165	40,192	7,478	5,712	.....	627	26,375
Same as above, hard (dozen)	1913	5,900	113,870	16,134	87,840	3,801	675	5,420
	1914	3,711	71,622	12,197	55,255	1,331	115	2,724
	1915	2,934	56,626	10,055	45,007	.....	.....	1,564
Straw (dozen)	1913	100,314	328,865	1,401	127,513	4,021	53,343	142,587
	1914	54,476	196,876	23	89,302	2,167	24,925	80,459
	1915	27,292	205,272	38	24,444	3,001	148,371	29,418
Women's (dozen)	1913	9,960	109,124	737	2,666	2,034	100,447	3,240
	1914	4,436	67,920	309	3,594	23	61,649	2,345

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LIST OF SAMPLES.

In selecting the samples listed below an effort was made to secure as complete a collection as possible of articles of clothing worn in Argentina and Uruguay, giving special attention to those lines which are now actually being imported and which offer possible business to the American manufacturer of similar goods. A number of articles of domestic manufacture are shown, but often in these lines the local production is not sufficient to supply the home market and there is a chance for the foreign manufacturer to compete for a part of the business. With the other data are included the country of origin and other details which might be of value in a study of the report.

Conversions of prices have been made at the rate prevailing at the time the samples were brought (June, 1917). Since the war price fluctuations have been frequent and for this reason the prices quoted have less value than they otherwise would. Retail values are given, and where possible the wholesale price is also shown; in some cases the manufacturing cost of the goods is detailed. The dollar sign ($) always indicates values in United States currency, while the sign "m/n" stands for national money and refers to the Argentine paper peso, which is figured at $0.44. Conversions of currencies of European countries have been calculated at approximately the rate prevailing at the outbreak of war; thus the shilling is taken at 24 cents, the mark at 23 cents, and the lira, franc, and peseta at 19 cents each. The Uruguayan peso is reckoned as worth $1.08. Many of the samples are from stock that was ordered and contracted for at these normal exchange rates, which largely justifies their use in making the conversions.

In some lines, samples of only the better grade of goods were bought, as it is in this quality that the American manufacturer has the best chance of competing. In other lines, where types and fashions could be as well illustrated by the cheaper goods, this quality was purchased.

The samples may be examined at the bureau's New York office, 734 Customhouse.

SHIRTS.

1. Men's zephyr cloth shirt, English; attached pleated bosom and double or musketeer cuffs; hand-sewn buttons and buttonholes; retails at 6.50 m/n ($2.85).

2. Men's woolen taffeta shirt, English; negligee style; mercerized cotton collar band and double cuffs; handmade buttonholes and hand-sewn buttons; double neckband for collar button and string in back for holding tie in place when worn with single collar; also tab in front for holding down shirt; retails at 9 m/n ($3.95).

3. Men's silk-bosom shirt, English; attached pleated bosom, with double silk cuffs and sleeves and body of white madapollam; buttonholes made and buttons sewn on with silk thread; stitching of bosom and cuffs with silk; good grade of buttons and improved double neckband; retails at 10 m/n ($4.40).

4. Men's zephyr cloth shirt, Austrian; product of Prague, Austria; manufacturer, M. Joss & Lowenstein; made in imitation of American coat shirt, but of

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poor grade; double cuffs; buttonholes machine made and buttons hand sewn; generally poorly made; retails at $2.75; invoiced at 51.75 marks ($11.90) per dozen.

5. Men's zephyr cloth shirt, Austrian; made by same firm as sample No. 4; pleated attached stiff bosom and cuffs; hand-sewn buttons and machine-made buttonholes; retails at $2.75; invoiced at 47.25 marks ($10.87) per dozen. Mark "Scherzo."

6. Men's cotton crêpe shirt, Austrian; negligee style; coat style with double cuffs, two collars accompanying; buttons hand sewn and buttonholes machine made; retails at $2.75; invoiced at 52 marks ($11.96) per dozen. Mark "Tibet."

7. Men's white dress shirt, Austrian; made of good-grade madapollam, with piqué bosom and linen cuffs; plaquet sleeves; bosom semidisconnected from body; double neckband; buttonholes machine made and rather poorly worked; while a good value for the money, this shirt is not superior to the locally made product, the cutting and sewing being only ordinary. The excellent presentation is a factor in its sale. Retails at $3.04; invoiced at 58.50 marks ($13.46) per dozen.

8. Men's native-made shirt; product of workshop of large Buenos Aires retail store; material, zephyr cloth; double cuffs and square-pleated bosom, inserted; pull-over-head type, double neckband; buttons and buttonholes machine worked; manufacturing costs: Material, 38.90 meters per dozen shirts, at 0.583 m/n per meter; making, with buttonholes, 6.80 m/n per dozen; laundering, 0.60 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.272 m/n each; total cost to manufacturer, 29.25 m/n ($12.87 per dozen. Retails at 4.75 m/n ($2.09) each.

9. Men's native-made pleated-bosom shirt and drawer combination; product of shops of large Buenos Aires retailer; zephyr cloth; double cuffs, with inserted bosom; buttons and buttonholes machine finished. Manufacturing costs: Material, 38.50 meters per dozen hirts, at 0.517 m/n per meter; making, 8.25 m/n per dozen; laundering, 2.70 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.402 m/n each; total cost to manufacturer, 31.64 m/n ($13.95) per dozen. Retails at $2.15 each.

10. Men's native-made shirt; negligee style, double cuffs and neckband; buttons and buttonholes worked on machine; retails at 5.20 m/n ($2.28).

11. Men's native-made shirt, better grade; material, zephyr; square, pleated bosom, with double cuffs and neckbands; formerly sold at $2.50, now retails at $3.

12. Men's native-made shirt, madapollam body and zephyr bosom and cuffs; stiff bosom and cuffs, with horizontal barred design; a popular style during the past season; retails at 4.80 m/n ($2.11).

13. Men's native-made white full-dress shirt; linen bosom and cuffs, with madapollam body; starched cuffs and bosom. Manufacturing costs: Material, 40.20 meters per dozen, at 0.575 m/n per meter; making, 9.05 m/n per dozen; laundering, 3.30 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.454 m/n each; total cost to manufacturer, 35.86 m/n ($15.78) per dozen. Retails at $2.50 each.

14. Men's native-made pleated white dress shirt; linen cuffs and bosom and madapollam body; stiff cuffs and starched bosom; double neckband, square, inserted bosom, with tab in front. Manufacturing costs: Material employed, 38.60 meters, at 0.392 m/n per meter; making, 8.05 m/n per dozen; laundering, 3.30 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.417 m/n each; total cost to manufacturer, 27.99 m/n ($12.32) per dozen. Retails at 4.10 m/n ($1.80).

COLLARS.

15. Men's linen collar, Austrian; product of M. Joss & Lowenstein, Prague, Austria; four-ply; buttonholes machine made; back measurement 2½ inches; laundering and finish excellent; sizes marked in inches and centimeters; trademark "Aristocrat"; retails at $0.33.

16. Men's linen collar, Austrian; three-ply, style "Antonis"; size, 17½; height, 2½ inches; invoiced at 4.75 marks ($1.09) per dozen; retails at $0.33.

17. Men's linen collar, Austrian; style, "Oyama"; size, 17; invoiced at 3.50 marks ($0.81) per dozen; retails at $0.33.

18. Men's linen collar, Austrian; style, "General Artigas"; size, 17; invoiced at 4.75 marks ($1.09) per dozen; retails at $0.33.

19. Men's linen collar, Italian; style, "Gentleman"; marked D. F. & C., London; two-ply; Reese machine buttonholes; very cheaply made; retails at $0.33.

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20. Men's linen collar, English; marked "McHardy"; four-ply, excellently made; buttonholes hand worked; size, 14½ by 2 inches high; a good value; retails at 1 m/n ($0.44).

21. Men's linen collar, English; same as sample No. 20, except for style and height; retails at $0.44.

22. Men's stand-up linen collar, Austrian; four-ply; machined buttonholes; square wings, popular design; style, "Cimarosa"; retails at $0.37 each.

23. Men's stand-up linen collar, Austrian; four-ply; style "Suarez"; a popular style; invoiced at 3.75 marks ($0.86) per dozen; retails at $0.37.

24. Men's stand-up linen collar, Austrian; similar to sample No. 23 and also a popular style; mark "Elegante"; invoiced at 3.75 marks ($0.86) per dozen; retails at $0.37.

25. Men's stand-up linen collar, Austrian; similar to sample No. 23; style, "Severius"; invoiced at 3.50 marks ($0.81) per dozen; retails at $0.37 each.

26, 27, and 28. Men's stand-up linen collars of Austrian manufacture; these are heavy four-ply collars which have become practically obsolete; the extreme styles are no longer worn in Argentina and a lighter weight article is preferred.

29, 30, and 31. Men's native-made double linen collars; four-ply, light weight; buttonholes machine made; cleanly made and laundering and presentation good; represent most popular forms; retail at $0.35 each.

32. Men's native-made double negligee collar, to wear with shirt sample No. 12; no price, same being included in cost of shirt.

33, 34, and 35. Men's native-made wing collars; four-ply linen of most favored designs now being worn; retail at $0.35 each.

36 and 37. Men's native-made soft collars; linen finish; buttons and buttonholes worked by machine; both styles are popular; retail at $0.40 each.

38. Men's native-made soft piqué collar; eyelets and buttons machine worked; strips for holding tie in place; retails at $0.31.

39. Men's native-made soft colored collar; eyelets hand worked; buttons on machine; retails at $0.29.

40. Men's paper collars, wing style; from German house of Mey & Edlich, at Leipzig; retail at $0.49 per dozen.

41. Men's paper collars, fold style; from same source as above; retail at $0.49 per dozen.

CUFFS.

42. Men's linen cuffs, Austrian; four-ply, square points; reversible; machine-made buttonholes; from M. Joss & Lowenstein, Prague; mark, "Gladstone"; invoiced at 9.50 marks ($2.19) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.44 per pair.

43. Men's linen cuffs, Italian; four-ply, lighter weight; round corners, reversible; machine-worked buttonholes; retail at $0.44 per pair.

44. Men's colored paper cuffs, German; reversible; stamped eyelets; retail at $0.99 per dozen; paper cuffs are generally in colors.

45. Men's rubber cuffs, imported; round corners; reversible; represents popular style; little-used article; retail at $0.49 per pair.

NECKTIES.

46. Men's silk four-in-hand tie, Italian; dark blue with fine, white, diagonal stripes set wide apart; lined; hemmed by machine and closed by hand; invoiced at 50 francs ($9.50) per dozen; retails at $1.73.

47. Men's silk four-in-hand tie, Italian; dark blue with fine triple stripe in white; invoiced at 50 francs ($9.50) per dozen; retails at $1.73.

48. Men's four-in-hand tie, Italian; taffeta silk, figured; invoiced at 62 francs ($11.78) per dozen; retails at $1.95.

49. Men's four-in-hand tie, Italian; loose-woven silk; dark blue and purple check; lined; invoiced at 57 francs ($10.83) per dozen; retails at $1.89.

50. Men's "plastron" (species of four-in-hand) tie; light blue color; hemmed on machine and finished by hand; invoiced at 54 francs ($10.26) per dozen; retails at $1.89.

51. Men's "plastron" tie, Italian; gray with black stripes; ordered in one color, but on account of shortage of material came lined in black; popular type of tie in Argentina and Uruguay; invoiced at 68 francs ($12.92) per dozen; retails at $1.89.

52 and 53. Men's four-in-hand silk ties, French; brown with alternating light and dark bars, and blue with alternating light and dark bars; hemmed on machine and closed by hand; invoiced at 27 francs ($5.13) per dozen; retails at $1.51 each.

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54. Men's four-in-hand silk tie, English; dark blue with diagonal brown bars; hemmed on machine and finished by hand; invoiced at 34s. 6d. ($8.28) per dozen; retails at $1.51.

55. Men's four-in-hand silk woven tie; very dark blue with narrow red stripe down center; sewn on machine to give impression of knitted tie; invoiced at 69 francs ($13.11) per dozen; retails at $1.89.

56. Men's four-in-hand knit silk tie, English; dark blue and red, accordion fashion; not particularly successful in market; invoiced at 27s. 8d. ($6.65) per dozen; retails at $1.62.

57. Men's silk bow tie, Italian; dark blue with gray bars; cheap, hand-sewn tie; invoiced at 11 francs ($2.09) per dozen; retails at $0.54.

58. Men's silk bow tie, Italian; green; one side sewn by hand, other on machine; invoiced at 17 francs ($3.23) per dozen; retails at $0.54.

59. Men's black bow tie, Italian; cheap, silk; one side sewn by machine and the other finished by hand; invoiced at 18 francs ($3.42) per dozen; retails at $0.65.

60. Men's fancy silk bow tie, Argentine; black and gray, especially popular during past season; one side sewn by machine, the other finished by hand; made in Argentina and sold in Montevideo; invoiced at $5.40 per dozen; retails at $0.65.

61. Men's native-made four-in-hand tie; cheap grade Parma silk; machine hemmed and hand finished. Manufacturing costs: Material for dozen ties, 3.10 meters; cost of making, 1 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.072 m/n each; maximum manufacturing cost allowance per dozen, 5.98 m/n ($2.63); retails at 1 m/n ($0.44).

62. Men's native-made four-in-hand tie; better grade silk; machine hemmed and hand finished. Manufacturing costs: Material employed for dozen ties, 3.15 meters; cost of making, 1.10 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.083 m/n each; maximum cost allowance per dozen, 7.90 m/n ($3.48); retails at $0.66 each.

63. Men's native-made four-in-hand tie; details same as for sample No. 62, only difference being in pattern.

64. Men's native-made four-in-hand tie; good grade silk. Manufacturing costs: Material for dozen ties, 3.35 meters; cost of making, 1.10 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.083 each; maximum cost allowance per dozen, 12.10 m/n ($5.32); retails at 2.50 m/n ($1.10).

65. Native-made four-in-hand tie; fine silk and an excellent value. Manufacturing costs: Material for dozen ties, 3.35 meters; cost of making, 1.10 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.083 m/n each; maximum cost allowance per dozen, 13.13 m/n ($5.78); retails at 3 m/n ($1.32).

66. Native-made bow tie of Parma silk; special value, entirely handmade. Manufacturing costs: Material employed, 1 meter per dozen ties; cost of making, 0.80 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.063 m/n each; maximum cost allowance per dozen, 2.80 m/n ($1.23); retails at 0.65 m/n ($0.29).

67. Native-made bow tie of Parma silk; handmade. Material employed for dozen ties, 1 meter; cost of making, 0.85 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.063 m/n each; maximum cost allowance per dozen, 3.80 m/n ($1.67); retails at 0.85 m/n ($0.37).

68. Native-made bow tie; Parma silk; made on machine, points finished by hand. Material employed per dozen, 2.80 meters; cost of making, 1.10 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.083 m/n each; maximum cost allowance for manufacturing, 6.50 m/n ($2.86) per dozen; retails at 1.20 m/n ($0.53).

69. Native-made black silk bow tie; good grade of silk; sewn on machine and finished by hand; retails at 1.50 m/n ($0.66) each.

70. Native-made fancy silk bow tie; sewn and finished on machine; retails at 1.75 m/n ($0.77) each.

71. Native-made black silk dress tie; good quality silk; machine sewn and finished by hand. Material employed for dozen, 1.50 meters; cost of making, 1.60 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.072 m/n each; maximum manufacturing cost, 11.40 m/n ($5.02) per dozen; retails at 2 m/n ($0.88) each.

72. Native-made fancy silk bow tie; machine sewed, turned over; open ends with "flequilla," or fringe; retails at 2.50 m/n ($1.10) each.

73. Native-made white batiste bow tie; sewn on machine, turned over and finished by hand. Material employed, 1.20 meters for dozen ties; cost of making, 1 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.10 m/n each; maximum cost allowance per dozen, 3 m/n ($1.32); retails at 0.85 m/n ($0.37) each.

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74. Native-made white batiste bow tie; washed, folded, and ironed. Material employed, 1.10 meters per dozen; cost of making, 1 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.07½ m/n; maximum cost allowance per dozen, 3 m/n ($1.32); retails at 0.75 m/n ($0.33) each.

75. Native-made ready-formed four-in-hand tie; known as "regatta"; silk with sateen lining and patent fastener; sewn on machine and finished by hand. Material employed, 1.50 meters per dozen; cost of making, $1.60 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.12 m/n each; maximum cost allowance per dozen, 11.40 m/n ($5.02); retails at 2 m/n ($0.88) each.

76. Native-made, ready-to-wear "plastron" silk tie; sewn on machine and finished by hand. Material employed for dozen ties, 1.90 meters; cost of making, 1.80 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.135 m/n each; maximum cost allowance for manufacturing per dozen, 8.80 m/n ($3.87); retails at 2.50 m/n ($1.10).

77. Native-made, ready to wear black silk dress tie, good quality; machine sewn and hand finished; fastening in back with hook and in front with metal snap; retails at 2 m/n ($0.88) each.

78. Native-made white batiste dress tie, made up; machine sewn and hand finished. Material employed, 1.10 meters per dozen; cost of making, 1 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.075 m/n each; maximum cost allowance, 3 m/n ($1.32) per dozen; retails at 0.75 m/n ($0.33) each.

79. Men's white batiste dress tie, made up; English manufacture; invoiced at 9s. 3d ($2.22) per dozen; retails at $0.54 each.

80. Children's native-made blouse or Windsor tie; white silk; cost of manufacture, $0.307; retails at $0.54.

81. Children's native-made Windsor tie; machine sewn; very simple in design, in plaid silk; manufacturing cost as for sample No. 80; retails at $0.54.

82. Children's native-made tie; same as sample No. 81, except for color.

UNDERWEAR.

83. Men's knit cotton undershirt, German; plain white; finished with overlock and chain stitch; short sleeves, plain, fly front; invoiced at 15.25 marks ($3.51) per dozen; retails at $0.92.

84. Men's knit cotton undershirt, German; finished with lock and chain stitch, sleeves sewed and overlocked; fly silk faced; short, plain sleeves; neck plain; invoiced at 18 marks ($4.14) per dozen; retails at $0.97.

85. Men's knit cotton undershirt, German; finished with overlock and chain stitch; body hemmed and overlocked; sleeves sewed and overlocked; sleeves slightly fancy; neck and facing plain; invoiced at 15.75 marks ($3.62) per dozen; retails at $1.08.

86. Men's knit cotton undershirt, German; facing on throat opening edged with tape; neckband sewn on apart; short sleeves with openwork cuff; sewing overlocked and chain stitched; hemmed and overlocked round bottom; invoiced at 19.75 marks ($4.54) per dozen; retails at $1.30.

87. Men's knit cotton undershirt, German; facing tape edged; short sleeve, openwork cuff, slightly more fancy than sample No. 86; neckband sewn on apart; seams overlocked and chain stitched; invoiced at 22 marks ($5.06) per dozen; retails at $1.30.

88. Men's knit cotton undershirt, German; facing tape bound; seams overlocked and chain stitched; long sleeves, fancy cuffs; hems overlocked; neck and throat fly plain; invoiced at 23.50 marks ($5.41) per dozen; retails at $1.30.

89. Men's knit cotton undershirt, French; color pink; short sleeve with fancy cuff; plain silk facing, lock stitched and overlocked; neckband sewn on apart; a finer grade shirt than any of the preceding; invoiced at 51 francs ($9.69) per dozen; retails at $2.16.

90. Men's knit cotton undershirt, French; details same as for sample No. 89, except for color, which is vicuña, similar to tan.

91. Men's crêpe wool undershirt, French; coat style, short sleeves and open under armpits; fabric goods; facing of nun's veiling material; sleeves plainly finished and hemmed; neck plain and sewn on apart with double chain stitch; not a particularly successful pattern as yet; invoiced at 31 marks ($7.13) per dozen; retails at $2.70. Price in marks probably indicates that it was sold through Hamburg.

92. Men's native-made cotton undershirt, Uruguayan; plain facing, sewn with lo[illegible]erlocking stitch; long sleeves, plain cuff and plain neck; a heavy, [illegible]nt; invoiced at $10.80 per dozen; retails at $1.40.

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93. Men's semiwool undershirt, German; cheap quality article; small collar sewn on apart; seams lock stitched; long sleeves, plain cuffs and neck; invoiced at 54 marks ($12.42) per dozen; retails at $3.46.

94. Men's suit of cotton underwear, German; facing stitched and lock stitched; side seams, sleeves, and bottom of body woven in; short sleeves with plain cuff. Drawers long, fancy cuff woven in; crotch slightly reinforced; buttons and buttonholes machine sewn; French style adjustment at waist; cotton sateen facing; invoiced at 52 marks ($11.96) per dozen; retails at $5.62 per suit.

95. Men's knit cotton undersuit, French; color plain white; shirt, short sleeves, set in and overseamed on two-needle sewing machine; shoulders same; plain cuffs; bottom hem woven in; facing of satin, sewn with lock stitch; buttons sewn on by hand and buttonholes machine made. Drawers long, plain cuff; seams overseamed with two-needle sewing machine; crotch seamed and reinforced with tape; cotton sateen facing applied; invoiced at 94 francs ($17.86) per dozen, with 5 per cent off; a lighter weight article is offered at 72 francs ($13.68) per dozen; retails at $7.78 per suit.

96. Men's mixed wool undershirt, Italian; vicuña color; shirt, long sleeves, plain cuffs; fabric facing, applied and seamed and overseamed with two-needle sewing machine; facing and neck plain, but with fancy stitch; machine-made buttonholes and buttons sewn on by machine; drawers, long, plain cuff, crotch seamed and overseamed with two-needle sewing machine; buttons and buttonholes worked on machine; French waist adjustment; facing of sateen; a popular article; bought from importer at $24.30 per dozen suits; retails at $3.89. per suit.

97. Men's crêpe underdrawers, Swiss manufacture; a well-known brand in the South American markets; reinforced crotch; buttons and buttonholes machine sewn; made on plain machine with overlock stitch; invoiced at 33 marks ($7.59) per dozen; retails at $2.71.

98. Men's native-made long cotton bramant drawers; fancy cuff with plaquet; buttons sewn on by machine and buttonholes worked by hand; all seamed and overseamed; made to secure about ankle with tape; retails at $1.51.

99. Men's light woolen undershirt, English; cheaply made with overlock seams; long sleeves, plain cuffs and neck, and plain facing of same material; retails at $1.76.

100. Men's light woolen underdrawers, English; to make suit with sample No. 99; seams lock stitched; buttons sewn on by machine, buttonholes worked by hand; plain cuff at ankle; string in back for adjusting at waist; retails at $1.76 per pair.

101. Men's short linen drawers, English; strong article, reinforced in crotch and seat; buttons and buttonholes machine sewn; retails at $2.42 per pair.

102. Women's native-made chemise; bramant cloth, machine embroidered; scalloped edges with interstices for passing ribbon; manufacturing cost, $1.20; retails at $1.94.

103. Women's native-made chemise; cotton nainsook, hand embroidered; manufacturing cost, $1.50; retails at $2.38.

104. Women's native-made chemise of cheap bramant cloth; machine made. Material employed, 2.40 meters each; cost of making, 1.30 m/n per dozen; laundering, 0.40 m/n per dozen; cutting, 0.05 each; maximum cost allowance, 0.70 ($0.31) each; retails at 0.95 m/n ($0.42).

105. Women's native-made chemise; white bramant cloth; hemstitch decoration with machine scallops; retails at 1.30 m/n ($0.57) each.

106. Women's native-made chemise; white bramant cloth; hand embroidered and well made. Material employed, 2.45 meters, at 0.31 m/n; cost of making, 2.40 m/n per dozen; embroidering, 3 m/n per dozen; laundering, 0.70 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.15 m/n each; maximum cost allowance for manufacturing, 2 m/n ($0.88) each; retails at $1.32.

107. Women's native-made corset cover (corpiña); white cotton nainsook; machine made and machine embroidery; scalloped edges with button waistband; cost, $0.76 each; retails at $1.08.

108. Women's native-made corset cover; details same as for sample No. 107.

109. Women's fine nainsook corset cover, French; entirely handmade and hand embroidered; invoiced at 12.50 francs ($2.38) each; retails for $7.02. An excellent example of the reason for the rather high figure representing the values of ladies' imported ready-made wear.

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110. Women's native-made drawers; bramantin cloth, scalloped and embroidered on machine; cost of making, $1.05; retail for $1.73 per pair.

111. Women's native-made bramantin drawers; white; machine made, with insertion for passing ribbon and two rows of trimming around bottom; hem and draw string at top; cost of making, $1.15; retail at $1.84 per pair.

112. Women's native-made drawers; white bramantin; machine embroidered and scalloped; hem and draw string at top; insertion for passing ribbon; cost of making up, $1.15; retail at $1.95 per pair.

113. Women's native-made drawers; cheap white bramantin; very plain article with narrow tucks and edging; retail at 1.20 m/n ($0.53) per pair.

114. Women's native-made drawers; better quality; machine hemstitched and scalloped; hem and draw string at top; retail at 2.35 m/n ($1.03) per pair.

115. Women's cotton knit underdrawers, knickerbocker style, of Spanish manufacture; color, black; made with elastic waistband and elastic in end of leg; seamed and overseamed on two-needle sewing machine; cuff plain; invoiced at 18 pesetas ($3.42) per dozen; retails at $1.84 per pair.

116. Women's cotton knit underdrawers, knickerbocker style, of Argentine manufacture; color, pink; seams overlocked, waist and cuffs with elastic draw bands; retails in Montevideo market at $3.46 per pair; invoiced at 39 m/n ($17.16) per dozen.

117. Women's knit woolen combination, French; short sleeves with crocheted edge; overlocked sewing on cuff, neckband, and facing; invoiced at 103 francs ($19.57) per dozen suits; retails at $6.05 each.

118. Women's cotton nainsook nightdress of Uruguayan manufacture; opening in back; long sleeves; insertion applied on sewing machine; cost of making, $1.15; retails at $1.95.

119. Women's nainsook nightdress, cheap; opening in front, and embroidered and finished on sewing machine; cost of making, $1.64; retails at $3.03 each.

120. Women's gauze bust supporter, with applied lace applications; French manufacture; invoiced at 3.60 francs ($0.68) each; retails at $1.84.

121. Women's bust supporter, French; supported by patent removable bones; reinforced with webbed tape; to lace in back and fasten with hooks and eyes in front; ribbon shoulder straps; Swiss embroidery; invoiced at 8.50 francs ($1.62) each; retails at $4.21.

122. Misses' woolen ribbed knit combination, French manufacture; long sleeves, three-quarter legs; cuffs plain and knitted in; open seat; crotch and legs seamed and overseamed with two-needle sewing machine; buttons and buttonholes sewn with machine; invoiced at 59 francs ($11.21) per dozen; retails at $2.59 per suit.

123. Misses' lawn cloth combination, German; insertion, ruffles, and Swiss embroidery; machine made; trimmed with ribbons; made to button in back; invoiced at 4.75 marks ($1.09) each; retails at $2.38.

124. Child's woolen ribbed knit combination, of French manufacture; long sleeves, plain cuffs; stitched on overlocking machine; opening in back; buttonholes machine worked and buttons sewn on by hand; invoiced at 55 francs ($10.45) per dozen; retails at $1.95 per suit.

MEN'S HOSIERY.

125. Men's lavender cotton socks, from Germany; full fashioned and labeled "reinforced," but only so in heel; invoiced at 6.70 marks ($1.54) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.43 per pair.

126. Cotton socks, black, with small white dots, from Germany; seamless; invoiced at 7.50 marks ($1.73) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.43 per pair.

127. Fast-black American cotton socks; interwoven toe and heel; seamless style; giving excellent satisfaction in River Plate countries; invoiced at $2.15 per dozen pairs; retail in Montevideo at $0.54 per pair.

128. Mercerized cotton socks, from Germany; seamless, fancy woven, in colors; invoiced at 9.75 marks ($2.24) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.54 per pair.

129. Cotton socks, from Germany; details same as for sample No. 128.

130. Fast-black mercerized cotton socks, of German manufacture; interwoven toe and heel, but no reinforcement; seamless; invoiced at 9 marks ($2.07) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.65 per pair.

131. German cotton socks; fast black, with reinforced toe and heel; full fashioned; invoiced at 12.25 marks ($2.82) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.86.

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132. Mercerized cotton socks, of French manufacture; fast black; reinforced toe and heel; full fashioned; reinforced sole; good quality; invoiced at 18 francs ($3.42) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.76 per pair.

133. Mercerized cotton socks, of Spanish manufacture; in fancy weave and colors; full fashioned, reinforced heel; invoiced at 17.40 pesetas ($3.31) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.86 per pair.

134. Mercerized cotton socks, Spanish; details same as for sample No. 133, except for color.

135. English socks, vegetable silk, with cotton tops and feet; silk clocks; color, gray; full fashioned; invoiced at 18s. 11d. ($4.54) per dozen pairs; retail at $1.25 per pair.

136. Linen socks, of French manufacture; color, black; full fashioned, with reinforced toe and heel; invoiced at 32 francs ($6.08) per dozen pairs; retail at $2.16 per pair. The linen stocking is a specialty of French industry.

137. Men's black silk socks, of French manufacture; full fashioned, slightly reinforced; all silk; invoiced at 70 francs ($13.30) per dozen pairs; retail at $3.03 per pair.

WOMEN'S STOCKINGS.

138. Cheap cotton Spanish stockings; color, black; full fashioned, reinforced in heel; invoice price not given; retail at $0.53. Anything under 40 or 50 cents is considered a cheap stocking, whether men's or women's, in Argentina and Uruguay.

139. Imported openwork cotton stockings; retail at 1.20 m/n ($0.53) per pair. A type of stocking which has little or no acceptance in Argentina; in only one or two of the Provinces is there any demand for it.

140. Imported stockings of English make; cheap cotton goods; full fashioned, without reinforcement; color black; retails at 1.50 m/n ($0.66).

141. Cheap cotton stockings of French manufacture; full fashioned; black; retail at 1.50 m/n ($0.66) per pair. A poor-appearing article with a greasy "feel."

142. Imported heavy cotton stockings of French manufacture; plain black, with woven openwork design up sides; full fashioned, without reinforcement; a good value, retailing at 2.80 m/n ($1.23) per pair.

143. Mixed wool stockings, from England; in fast black, full fashioned, no reinforcement; fairly heavy and popular type of stockings for foreign trade; retail at 3.50 m/n ($1.54) per pair.

144. Mercerized cotton stockings, from France; full fashioned, plain black, without reinforcement; invoiced at 24 francs ($4.56) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.97 per pair.

145. Half cotton and vegetable silk stockings, of American make; full fashioned, reinforced toe, heel, and sole; an extremely popular brand and one which has sold well in the River Plate market; invoiced at $9 per dozen pairs; retail at $1.08.

146. Mercerized cotton and part-linen stockings, from France; full fashioned, nonreinforced; fast black; invoiced at 20 francs ($3.80) per dozen pairs; retail at $1.30 per pair.

147. Black linen stockings, from France; full fashioned, slightly reinforced toe and heel; well finished at top; a good value and popular; invoiced at 27.50 francs ($5.23) per dozen pairs; retail at $1.51 per pair.

148. Silk dress stockings, from France; full fashioned, fancy woven in openwork design; no reinforcement; color, light blue; blue, in this and in darker shades, is one of the most popular colors sold, excepting black, and a great many have been worn this season; invoiced at 60 francs ($11.40) per dozen; retail at $3.03.

149. Child's linen stockings from France; half length; fast black, full fashioned; fancy weave; invoiced at 10.50 francs ($2) per dozen; retail at $0.45.

150. Child's linen stockings from France; full fashioned, plain black; invoiced at 11.50 francs ($2.19) per dozen; retail at $0.45 per pair.

151. Child's linen stockings, half length, from Germany; full fashioned, tan color; fancy woven; invoiced at 17.50 marks ($4.03) per dozen; retail at $0.50 per pair.

152. Child's long ribbed cotton and linen stockings from France; full fashioned, slightly reinforced heel; color, black; invoiced at 11.50 francs ($2.19) per dozen; retail at $0.50 per pair.

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153. Men's golf stockings of English make; ribbed worsted; retail at 6 m/n ($2.64) per pair.

SUSPENDERS AND GARTERS.

154. French suspenders of "Guyot" brand; fabric straps and ends, with elastic in short section in back only; invoiced at 33 francs ($6.27) per dozen; retail at $1.84.

155. Set of dress suspenders and garters of English make; fancy article of silk and mercerized cotton with brass finishings; straps of silk and ends of mercerized cotton with satin facings; elastic in small section at back; garters of silk elastic web with brass trimmings; this type is being supplanted by the improved American designs or their imitations; invoiced at $37.80 per dozen sets, placed in store; retail at $4.10 per set.

156. Silk garters with leather facings from France; invoiced at 24 francs ($4.56) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.81 per pair.

157. Women's native-made round garters; fancy design, chiffon flowers and silk base; rubber stems for flowers, with elastic web; for bridal costume, etc.; cost of making, $0.62; retail at $3.03.

SWEATERS.

158. Women's native-made sweater for street wear; made of ordinary grade of cotton yarn; ribbed finish; seamed on overlocking machine; pockets stitched on by machine; buttons and buttonholes sewn by hand; invoiced at $6.50, placed in store; retails in Montevideo for $9.75. Argentine manufacture.

159. Boy's native-made sweater jacket of Argentine manufacture; made of part wool and cotton; collarette and pockets sewn on by machine; buttons and buttonholes hand worked; long sleeves, plain cuffs; cost, in store, $38.94 per dozen; retails in Montevideo at $7.02 each.

160. Boy's sweater of mixed wool and cotton from France; made on plain machine; military collar and double cuff; invoiced at 10.50 francs ($2) each; retails at $4.92.

161. Boy's woolen jersey suit and cap from France; made on plain machine; turn-down collar, long sleeves, plain cuffs; invoiced at 15 francs ($2.85) each; retail at $6.25.

SHIRTWAISTS.

162. Native-made cotton flannel shirtwaists; turned-over cuffs; front and back pleated; fancy pockets and buttons; fastens with hooks and snaps in front; elastic waistband; turn-down sailor collar. Material employed, 2.60 meters; cost of making 0.40 m/n each; cutting and overhead, 0.15 m/n each; maximum cost allowance, 1.30 m/n ($0.57); retails at 2.95 m/n ($1.30).

163. Women's summer blouse of wool from France; coat style; workmanship only fair; collar and cuffs in white nun's veiling; fastens in front with tape buttonholes; sewed on ordinary machine; invoiced at 13.25 francs ($2.52) each; retails at $6.59.

164. Women's fancy summer blouse of white batiste from France; entirely handmade; tucks and embroidery all by hand; fastens in front; hemstitching on cuffs and collar by machine; invoiced at 20 francs ($3.80) each; retails at $9.18.

CORSETS.

165. Women's silk corset from France; back lacing, with web gusset for more freedom of movement; garters attached; invoiced at 19 francs ($3.61) each; retails at $9.18.

166. Child's heavy cotton corset waist from Germany; shoulder straps; made with buttons and lacings; machine made; invoiced at 2 marks ($0.46) each; retails at $1.08.

167. English corset waist of heavy muslin; stitching on two-needle machine; two elastic garters attached; invoiced at 18s. ($4.32) per dozen; retails at $1.08.

GLOVES.

168. Mocha gloves for men's wear from Italy; invoiced at 47 lire ($8.93) per dozen pairs; retail at $3.25 per pair.

169. Imitation dogskin men's gloves from Italy; invoiced at 44 lire ($8.36) per dozen pairs; retail at $3.25 per pair.

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170. Suede leather men's gloves from France; silk points, French style fingers; invoiced at 52 francs ($9.88) per dozen pairs; retail at $2.70 per pair.

171. French imitation leather gloves, with silk points; shade a bit light, but style meeting with good sale; invoiced at 26 francs ($5.12) per dozen pairs; retail at $1.95 per pair.

172. German imitation leather gloves, with points of same material as gloves; sample No. 171 appears superior to this glove, at a lower price; invoiced at 30.50 marks ($7.02) per dozen pairs; retail at $1.62 per pair.

173. French linen gloves for men's wear; clasp button; points of same material as glove; French fingers; sewn on double-thread machine; invoiced at 21 francs ($4) per dozen; retail at $1.08 per pair.

174. German linen gloves for men's wear; points of silk; snap fasteners; unlined; machine sewn; double chain stitched with silk; invoiced at 18 marks ($4.14) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.86 per pair.

175. English linen gloves for men's wear; silk points; unlined; snap fastener; machine sewn, with double chain stitch, silk thread; German glove seems superior; invoiced at 18s. ($4.32); retail at $0.86 per pair.

176. French linen gloves for men's wear; silk points; unlined; snap fastening; double chain stitched on machine with silk; invoiced at 28 francs ($5.32) per dozen pairs; retail at $1.08 per pair.

177. All-silk gloves, unlined, from Germany; snap fastenings; points silk; double chain machine stitched; color good; invoiced at 29 marks ($6.67) per dozen pairs; retail at $1.89 per pair.

178. German silk gloves without points; unlined, button fastening; double chain machine stitching; buttonholes worked by hand and buttons sewn on by hand; color good; invoiced at 33 marks ($7.59) per dozen pairs; retail at $2.05 per pair.

179. Women's imitation leather cotton gloves, short length; French manufacture; white points of same material as gloves; finger tips single; double snap fastenings; invoiced at 12.50 francs ($2.38) per dozen pairs; retail at $0.76 per pair.

180. Women's long cotton gloves, imitation suede, from France; closed arm; fastening at wrist with three pearl snaps; single finger tips; machine-stitched hem at top; invoiced at 23.50 francs ($4.47) per dozen pairs; retail at $1.30.

181. Child's woolen gloves, dark brown, from England; similar to type commonly worn in United States in winter by children and known as "golf" gloves; retail at 1.50 m/n ($0.66) per pair.

182. Child's woolen gloves; details same as for sample No. 181, except for difference in color.

HANDKERCHIEFS.

183. White silk kerchief from Japan; used in large quantities in the Provinces for wearing about throat on gala occasions; measures 33 inches square; and costs in Japan only 1.50 yen ($0.75) per dozen; necessarily of very cheap silk and of flimsy texture.

184. Fancy Japanese silk pocket handkerchief; white and purple, with design printed on material; invoiced at 10 francs ($1.90) per dozen; retails at $0.86 each.

185. Silk handkerchief from France, good quality; machine hemstitched; plain white; invoiced at 18 francs ($3.42) per dozen; retails at $1.08 each.

186 and 187. Fancy cotton handkerchiefs of English manufacture, with design woven in; stripes of mercerized cotton; invoiced at 3s. 11d. ($0.95) per dozen; retail at $0.27 each.

188. Men's fancy cotton handkerchief, English; hemstitched on machine; design woven in; invoiced at 3s. 5d. ($0.82) per dozen; retails at $0.22 each.

189. Plain white hemstitched cotton handkerchief from Spain; invoiced at 5.15 pesetas ($0.98) per dozen; retails at $0.22 each.

190. Plain white linen handkerchief from Italy; narrow hemstitched border; for men's wear; invoiced at 8 francs ($1.52) per dozen; retails at $0.86 each.

191. Men's white linen handkerchief of Spanish manufacture; hemstitched border; invoiced at 11.75 pesetas ($2.23); retails at $0.70 each.

192. Men's white linen handkerchief from Spain; plain, with hemstitched border; invoiced at 13.50 pesetas ($2.57) per dozen; retails at $0.70 each.

193. Men's white linen handkerchief from France; hemstitched border, and initial in one corner; invoiced at 14.35 francs ($2.73) per dozen; retails at $0.65 each.

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194. Men's plain white linen handkerchiefs of English manufacture; narrow hemstitched border; invoiced at 15s. 9d. ($3.78) per dozen; retails at $0.70 each.

195. Fine batiste handkerchief, with mercerized stripe, of Austrian manufacture; polka-dot design; one of the best types sold; invoiced at 34.50 francs ($6.56) per dozen; retails at $1.40 each.

196. Silk handkerchief, for use as throat muffler, of Japanese make; excellent, heavy-grade silk, pure white; invoiced at 45 francs ($8.55) per dozen; retails at $3.46 each.

197. Women's plain white cotton handkerchief from Switzerland; narrow hemstitched border; machine embroidered; invoiced price not given; retails at 0.35 m/n ($0.15) each.

198. Women's white linen handkerchief of Swiss make; initialed; narrow hemstitched border, and machine embroidered; retails at 0.60 m/n ($0.26) each.

199. Imported women's cotton handkerchief, plain white; hemstitched border; retails at 0.20 m/n ($0.09) each.

200. Women's imported white linen handkerchief; embroidered by machine in one corner; narrow hemstitched border; retails at 0.60 m/n ($0.26) each.

201. Imported women's plain white linen handkerchief, with wide hemstitched border; retails at 0.50 m/n ($0.22) each.

202. Fine linen handkerchief from England; plain white, with narrow hemsticked border; retails at 1.05 m/n ($0.45) each.

203. Women's linen handkerchief, for mourning use; English make; white, with narrow black border; retails at 0.80 m/n ($0.35) each.

204. Women's cotton handkerchief, English; white, with black border, for mourning; retails at 0.25 m/n ($0.11) each.

205. Women's colored silk handkerchief of Swiss manufacture; machine embroidered; sold in large quantities; best sales in white, blue, and pink; retails at 1.20 m/n ($0.53) each.

206. Children's cotton print handkerchief of English manufacture; white with fancy border; hemstitched; retails at 0.10 m/n ($0.044) each.

207 and 208. Children's cotton print handkerchiefs; retails same as for sample No. 206.

HATS.

209. Men's black derby hat from England; lined in white; invoiced at 84s. per dozen ($20.16); retails at $5.94 each.

210. Men's light soft hat of Italian make; invoiced at $41.58 per dozen; retails at $5.40 each.

211. Men's dark-brown soft hat from Italy; invoiced at $34.02 per dozen; retails at $4.32 each.

212. Men's black soft hat, Italian; invoiced at $34.02 per dozen; retails at $4.32 each.

CHILD'S WEAR.

213. Child's worsted leggings; fast black; ribbed knit goods, with strap to pass under instep; retail at $0.81 per pair.

214. Boy's blue serge sailor suit with necktie attached; sailor collar and cuffs; elastic draw string in blouse. Two-piece suit; one detached breast shield; pockets in trousers and coat; black satinee covered buttons; machine-made article; buttonholes handmade; imported from Austria; invoiced at 12.50 kroner ($2.38) each; retails at $6.37.

215. Boy's sateen hat; white with green under brim; for summer wear; machine made, of German manufacture; invoiced at 6 marks ($1.38) each; retails at $2.59 each.

216. Boy's brown woolen cloth stitched hat, lined with sateen; of French manufacture; invoiced at 39 francs ($7.41) per dozen; retails at $1.51 each.

BABIES' WEAR.

217. Babies' umbilical strips from France; invoiced at 6 francs ($1.14) per dozen boxes; retail at $0.92 per box.

218. Babies' cotton webbing bellybands; selvage edge; English manufacture; invoiced at 6s. 6d. ($1.56) per dozen; retails at $0.38 each.

219. Babies' soft flannel bellyband, with fancy stitch hand-worked and overlocked mercerized edge; invoiced at 4s. 9d. per dozen ($1.14); retails at $0.32 each; English manufacture.

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220. Bombasí cloth diaper from Germany; edges scalloped by hand on two sides; invoiced at 28.50 marks ($6.56) per dozen; retails at $1.30 each.

221. Babies' triangle cloth of serge bombasí, from Germany; machine-made; scalloped edging; buttons sewn on by hand; buttonholes machine-made; invoiced at 12 marks ($2.76) per dozen; retails at $0.54 each.

222. Muslin drawers, machine-made, scalloped by hand; German make; made to button onto waist; waistband and tape draw string; buttonholes machine worked; invoiced at 9 marks ($2.07) per dozen; retails at $0.43.

223. Babies' corset waist of cotton webbing from Germany; machine-made; buttoning in back; buttons to attach drawers; invoiced at 9.50 marks ($2.19) per dozen; retails at $0.49 each.

224. Babies' woolen undershirt of native manufacture; buttons in back; buttonholes worked on machine; buttons sewn on by hand; long sleeves, plain cuffs and facing; seamed on ordinary sewing machine; hemmed with overlocking machine; invoiced at 16 m/n ($7.04) per dozen; retails at $1.19 each.

225. Babies' pink knit ribbed wool shirt, made in Germany; fancy edge sewn on and overlocked; trimmed with ribbons and closes in front with ribbons; seams and cuffs overlocked; invoiced at 5.50 marks ($1.27) per dozen; retails at $0.32 each.

226. Flannel jacket of native manufacture; long sleeves; scalloped hand trimming; seams reinforced with tape; cost of making, $0.76; retails at $1.30.

227. Babies' woolen knit open white jacket, with purple neck ribbon; long sleeves; retails at $1.19 each.

228. Long-sleeve bombasí cloth jacket from France; scallops worked by machine; invoiced at 4.75 francs ($0.90) per dozen; retails at $0.27 each.

229. Cheap muslin jacket, made in France; machine-made; invoiced at 2.75 francs ($0.52) per dozen; retails at $0.16 each.

230. Babies' cotton nainsook jacket, native made; machine-applied lace; draw strings at cuffs and neck; open in back; cost of making, $0.09; retails at $0.22 each.

231. Bombasí combination, with attached belt, made in Germany; sewing and embroidery machine worked; invoiced at 34 marks ($7.82) per dozen; retails at $1.62 each.

232. Bombasí combination, long, sleeveless dress; sewing and embroidery by machine; superior in quality to sample No. 231; invoiced at 4.25 marks ($0.98) each; retails at $2.92.

233. Knitted white wool cape, with pink adornment woven in; finished by hand; fancy weave round bottom; made in Argentina; cost of making, $16.72 per dozen; retails at $2.81 each.

234. Babies' long dress, lawn, of French manufacture; over pink lawn underskirt; machine-made; imitation Valencia insertion and lace trimming; invoiced at 2.38 francs each; retails at $6.26.

235. Set of nainsook underwear of three pieces, including shirt, drawers, and nightgown; made by hand; trimmed with pink ribbons; invoiced at 6.50 marks ($1.50) per set; retails at $4.54. German manufacture.

236. Lawn bib made in Germany; all hand embroidered and worked; trimmed with edging; invoiced at 7.50 marks ($1.73) each; retails at $3.56.

237. Babies' bonnet of French manufacture; lawn and lace, pink with blue flowers; lined with silk; handmade; invoiced at 8 francs ($1.52) each; retails at $4.

238. Babies' bonnet, made in Germany; lingerie, made entirely of lace, with ribbon strings. The French bonnet is a slightly superior article; invoiced at 6 marks ($1.38) each; retails at $3.89.

239. Babies' knitted white wool shoes of native manufacture; pink ribbon strings; cost of making, $2.38 per dozen pairs; retail at $0.32 per pair.

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

240. Ladies' native-made petticoat, sold for white bramant cloth; hemstitched and scalloped; seams fastened with hemming machine; waistband and draw string; a cheap article, retailing at 2.40 m/n ($1.06) each.

241. Ladies' native-made white-nainsook petticoat of better quality; hemstitched and with cotton lace inserted; insertion for passing ribbon and scalloped around bottom; waistband and tape draw string; retails at 4.50 m/n ($1.98) each.

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242. Ladies' dressing sack, or "matinee," of French manufacture; made entirely by hand of fine lawn and hand embroidered; invoiced at 30 francs ($5.70) each; retails at $17.50.

243. Women's knit woolen-mixture shawl in blue, made in Argentina; plain color with applied fancy fringe; invoiced at 38 m/n ($16.72) per dozen; retails at $3.89 each in Montevideo.

244. Women's dust cap, or "coiffure" cap, of native manufacture; made of lawn batiste with lace medallions applied by hand; all handmade; cost to firm, $1.17 each; retails at $2.70.

245. Women's sanitary towels, from Germany; one-half dozen in box, complete with canvas belt, safety pins, snap, and elastic belt; invoiced at 2.35 marks ($0.54) per set; retail at $1.08.

246. Women's sanitary towels, cheaper grade; fully finished and complete with adjustable belt, loops, and safety pins; six in set; invoiced at 1.50 marks ($0.35) per set; retail at $0.65.

247. Women's compressed sanitary towels, medium size, 12 in package; for use when traveling; invoiced at 14s. 6d. ($3.48) per gross of towels; retail at $1.30 per package. Made in England.

248. Men's imported leather belt, made in England; for rough wear; retails at 6.50 m/n ($2.86) each.

249. Men's mercerized cotton pajamas of English manufacture; wide turn-down collar of type locally popular; pockets as per custom; frogs (calamares) of vegetable silk, applied; buttonholes machine-made; trousers with draw string; very popular article; retails at 10 m/n ($4.40) per suit.

250. Men's native-made nightshirt; material called bramant cloth; open throat and no collar; little trimming; a cheaply made garment; retails at 3.50 m/n ($1.40) each.

251. Men's facinette nightshirt of native manufacture; applied embroidery on collar and cuffs, pocket, and bosom; turn-down collar. Cost data: Material employed, 45.50 meters per dozen; cost of making, 7.85 m/n per dozen; laundering, 1.08 m/n per dozen; cutting and overhead, 0.328 m/n each; maximum cost allowance, 42.53 m/n ($18.71) per dozen; retails at $2.86 each. A well-made garment.

252. Men's mixed woolen throat muffler from England, in two colors, blue and vicuña; known locally as "bufanda" or cachecol"; fringe on botl. ends; an article of wide use in River Plate countries; invoiced at 18s. ($4.32) per dozen; retails at $2.38 each.

253. Men's white woolen throat muffler from England; knotted-fringe ends; invoiced at 27s. ($6.48) per dozen; retails at $2.70 each.

254. Men's plain blue woolen throat muffler of English manufacture; fringe at ends; retails at 8 m/n ($3.52).

255. Men's imported tubular knitted silk throat muffler, made in England; vegetable silk; made in three colors, black, white, and yellow, with silk fringe, knotted at point of junction with scarf; plain white or gray is equally or more desirable in this line; retails at 20 m/n ($8.80) each.

256. Men's smoking jacket or house coat in gray cloth fabric; trimmed with silk cord all around body and cuffs; turned-over cuffs and pockets trimmed with silk cord; covered buttons; buttonholes handmade; unlined article of English manufacture; retails at 25 m/n ($11) each.

257. Men's bath robe of cotton Turkish-towel texture; green with purple facing; cord about waist; two patch pockets; garment and facings on front of same material; one button to fasten in front; retails at 25 m/n ($11).

258. Men's fabric, shower-proof raincoat; small turn-down collar; turned-up cuffs; lined sleeves; two outside pockets and one inside; of English make, "raglan" style; declaration attached of nonresponsibility for fastness of color; invoiced at 52s. 6d. ($12.60); retails at $30.78 each.

259. Men's native-made three-piece suit of wool and cotton mixture, percentage of wool being small. Jacket single breasted, two button; lapel and collar semidouble breasted cut; full lined with black cotton serge; three inside pockets, including one for change; three outside plaquet pockets; buttons and buttonholes hand sewn. Vest, four button, without collar; lined with cotton fabric. Trousers, English cut, turn-up cuff, and four pockets, two side, one in back and one for watch; lined with fancy white cotton fabric; stitched on machine and overseamed by hand; patent clasp on fly in front. This suit is made by one of the leading clothing stores and was bought for 25 m/n ($11). It is a cheap suit in every sense.

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LACE, INSERTIONS, AND TRIMMINGS.

260. Imitation Valenciennes cotton lace, made in England; spray and dot design; machine work; 2 centimeters wide; invoiced at 2s. 1½d. ($0.51) per piece (11 meters); retails at $0.17 per meter.

261. Same as above, 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3s. 1½d. per piece ($0.75); retails at $0.24 per meter.

262. Same as above, 4 centimeters wide; invoiced at 4s. 3d. ($1.02) per piece; retails at $0.32 per meter.

263. Same as above, 6½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 6s. 4½d. ($1.53) per piece; retails at $0.49 per meter.

264. Imitation Valenciennes cotton lace from England; dot and blossom design; machine-made; 2½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 2s. 9d. ($0.66) per piece; retails at $0.19 per meter.

265. Same as No. 264, 4 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3s. 7½d. ($0.87) per piece; retails at $0.26 per meter.

266. Same as No. 264, 5 centimeters wide; invoiced at 4s. 7½d. ($1.11) per piece; retails at $0.32 per meter.

267. Same as No. 264, 6 centimeters wide; invoiced at 5s. 6d. ($1.32) per piece; retails at $0.41 per meter.

268. Same as No. 264, 8 centimeters wide; invoiced at 7s. 3d. ($1.74) per piece; retails at $0.54 per meter.

269. Mercerized cotton lace for exterior dress decoration, from France; machine-made; 34 centimeters wide; invoiced at 4.90 francs ($0.93) per meter; retails at $2.38.

270. Handmade linen-thread lace from France; 15 centimeters wide; retails at 3.20 m/n ($1.41) per meter.

271. Handmade linen lace of French make; 8 centimeters wide; retails at 2.50 m/n ($1.10) per meter.

272. Part linen lace from France, made in Savonne; 5 centimeters wide; retails at 0.50 m/n ($0.22) per meter.

273. Handmade linen lace from France; 3½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.30 m/n ($0.57) per meter.

274. Machine-made linen lace from France (Le Puy); 3 centimeters wide; retails at 0.90 m/n ($0.40) per meter.

275. Handmade fine linen lace from France; 4½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.90 m/n ($0.84) per meter.

276. Handmade cotton lace, Irish crochet type; width, 5 centimeters; retails at 4.50 m/n ($1.98) per meter.

277. Cotton lace from England, machine-made; imitation filet; 4 centimeters wide; retails at 1.10 m/n ($0.48) per meter.

278. Machine-made "Guipure" lace of French manufacture; 3 centimeters wide; retails at 0.90 m/n ($0.40) per meter.

279. Machine-made imitation filet lace of French make; rather coarse, cheap linen-thread article; 6 centimeters wide; retails at 0.45 ($1.98) per meter.

280. Fine handmade linen lace from France; 2 centimeters wide; retails at 0.60 m/n ($0.26) per meter.

281. Handmade Irish crocheted cotton lace from Chelles, France; 1 centimeter wide; retails at 0.90 m/n ($0.40) per meter.

282. Machine-made cotton lace, imitation Valenciennes, from France; four-leaf clover design; an excellent piece of lace; 1½ centimeters wide; retails at $0.04 per meter; invoiced at 1.32 francs ($0.25) per piece of 11 meters.

283. Similar to No. 282, cheaper quality; 2 centimeters wide; invoiced at 0.65 francs ($0.12) per piece; retails at $0.03 per meter.

284. English cotton lace, imitation Valenciennes; blossom pattern, machine-made; 2 centimeters wide; invoiced at 2s. 3d. ($0.54) per piece; retails at $0.13 per meter.

285. Same as No. 284, 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at 2s. 9d. ($0.66) per piece; retails at $0.19 per meter.

286. Same as No. 284, 4 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3s. 7½d. ($0.87) per piece; retails at $0.26 per meter.

287. Same as No. 284, 5 centimeters wide; invoiced at 4s. 7½d. ($1.11) per piece; retails at $0.37 per meter.

288. Same as No. 284, 6½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 5s. 4½d. ($1.29) per piece; retails at $0.43 per meter.

289. Same as No. 284, 8½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 7s. ($1.68) per piece; retails at $0.54 per meter.

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290. Similar to No. 284, but with spray and leaf design; 9½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 6s. 4½d. ($1.53) per piece; retails at $0.54 per meter.

291. Insertion, imitation Valenciennes; made from cotton, in England; blossom pattern; machine work; 7½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 7s. 9d. ($1.86) per piece; retails at $0.54 per meter.

292. Imitation Valenciennes cotton insertion from France; machine made; plain dot design; 1 centimeter wide; invoiced at 1.65 francs ($0.31) per piece; retails at $0.09 per meter.

293. Same as No. 292; 1½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 2.20 francs ($0.42) per piece; retails at $0.11 per meter.

294. Same as No. 292; 1½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 2.75 francs ($0.52) per piece; retails at $0.13 per meter.

295. Same as No. 292; 2 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3.85 francs ($0.73) per piece; retails at $0.17 per meter.

296. Same as No. 292; 2½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 5.28 francs ($0.79) per piece; retails at $0.24 per meter.

297. Imitation Valenciennes cotton insertion, from England; pattern to match lace samples Nos. 260 to 263, inclusive; machine made; 2 centimeters wide; invoiced at 2s. 1½ d. ($0.51) per piece; retails at $0.17 per meter.

298. Same as No. 297; 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3s. 1½d. ($0.75) per piece; retails at $0.24 per meter.

299. Same as No. 297; 4½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 4s. 3d. ($1.02) per piece; retails at $0.32 per meter.

300. Imitation Valenciennes cotton insertion; machine made in England; to match lace samples Nos. 264 to 268, inclusive; 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at 2s. 9d. ($0.57) per piece; retails at $0.19 per meter.

301. Same as No. 300; 4½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 3s. 7½d. ($0.87) per piece; retails at $0.27 per meter.

302. Machine-made cotton insertion, from England; imitation of Valenciennes; flower and bud pattern; 1½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 1s. 7½d. ($0.39) per piece; retails at $0.11 per meter.

303. Imitation Valenciennes cotton insertion, from France; machine made; trefoil design; 2 centimeters wide; invoiced at 0.56 francs ($0.11) per piece; retails at $0.06 per meter.

304. Similar to No. 303, with five-petal flower design; 2½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 0.65 franc ($0.12) per piece; retails at $0.09 per meter.

305. Imitation Valenciennes cotton insertion, from England, made to match lace samples Nos. 284 to 289, inclusive; machine work; 2 centimeters wide; invoiced at 2s. 2d. ($0.52) per piece; retails at $0.13 per meter.

306. Same as No. 305; 3½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 2s. 9d. ($0.66) per piece; retails at $0.24 per meter.

307. Same as No. 305; 4 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3s. 7½d. ($0.87) per piece; retails at $0.32 per meter.

308. Imitation Valenciennes cotton insertion, from France; machine made; conventional design; showing form of presentation; 1½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 6.50 francs per 100 meters; retails at $0.04 per meter.

309. Imitation Valenciennes cotton lace of English manufacture; blossom design; machine made; a cheap article, bought in piece to show form of presentation; 4 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3s. 3d. ($0.78) per piece of 11 meters; retails at $0.24 per meter.

310. Whole piece (4.10 meters) of cotton fabric insertion; machine embroidered, spray design; French manufacture; 3½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 1.60 francs ($0.30) per piece; retails at $0.49 per meter.

311. Cotton fabric insertion for running ribbon; machine embroidered; blossom design, from France; 3½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 1.59 francs ($0.30) per piece of 4.10 meters; retails at $0.49 per meter.

312. Similar to No. 311; from France; machine embroidered; eyelet work; 3½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 0.55 franc ($0.10) per piece of 4.10 meters; retails at $0.35 per meter.

313. Heavier grade cotton fabric insertion for ribbon; French make; eyelet-work design; 6 centimeters wide; invoiced at 5.05 francs ($0.96) per piece of 4.10 meters; retails at $0.65 per meter.

314. Fine cotton fabric insertion for running narrow ribbon; French made; machine embroidered; edge hemstitched; 10 centimeters wide; invoiced at 1.50 francs ($0.29) per meter; retails at $0.49 per meter.

315. Whole-piece cotton-fabric insertion of French manufacture; machine embroidered; design of diamond; for passing ribbon; 2 centimeters wide; in-

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voiced at 1.26 francs ($0.24) per piece of 4.10 meters; retails at $0.43 per meter.

316. Cotton-fabric insertion for passing ribbon; French make; flower pattern; machine embroidered; 1¼ centimeters wide; invoiced at 0.81 francs ($0.15) per piece of 4.10 meters; retails at $0.27 per meter.

317. Fine cotton-fabric insertion for running ribbon; French; plain design; 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at $0.83 francs per meter; retails at $0.38 per meter.

318. Handmade fine line insertion from France (Le Puy); 2 centimeters wide; retails at 1 m/n ($0.44) per meter.

319. Cotton fabric edging from France, to match sample No. 316; star flower design; machine embroidered and scalloped edge; invoiced at 1.05 francs ($0.20) per piece of 4.10 meters; retails at $0.38 per meter.

320. Application, cotton material, from France; machine-embroidered rose pattern on tulle base; scalloped edge; diameter, 9 centimeters; invoiced at 2.90 francs ($0.55) per dozen; retails at $0.43 each.

321. Machine-made imitation Valenciennes cotton application, from England; daisy pattern; made in piece; invoiced at 8s. 10½d. per piece of 11 meters; retails at $0.49 per meter.

322. Similar to above, to match lace sample No. 284; diameter, 7 centimeters; invoiced at 8s. 10½d. ($2.13) per piece of 11 meters; retails at $0.54 per meter.

323. Machine-embroidered cotton application, from France; bird pattern on tulle; 8½ centimeters diameter; invoiced at 3.95 francs ($0.75) per dozen; retails at $0.43 each.

324. Cheap cotton fabric application, from France; spray design, machine-made; 8 centimeters diameter; invoiced at 1.70 francs ($0.32) per dozen; retails at $0.16 each.

325. Similar to No. 324, slightly different pattern; same invoice and retail prices.

326. Cheap cotton application, from France; square; 8 centimeters across; machine-made; invoiced at 1.90 francs ($0.36) per dozen; retails at $0.22 each.

327. Cotton fabric application, from France; machine-made, butterfly design; invoiced at 5.95 francs ($1.13) per dozen; retails at $0.38 each.

328. Cotton fabric application, from France; 5 centimeters square; invoiced at 1.50 francs ($0.29) per dozen; retails at $0.28 each.

329. Machine-embroidered cotton fabric application, from France; bouquet design, 5 centimeters square; invoiced at 1.70 francs ($0.32) per dozen; retails at $0.27 each.

330. Cheap machine-embroidered cotton fabric application, from France; round-scalloped edges; diameter, 7 centimeters; invoiced at 1.70 francs ($0.32) per dozen; retails at $0.19 each.

331. Similar to No. 330; smaller, 5½ centimeters, and different pattern; invoiced at 0.80 franc ($0.15) per dozen; retails at $0.09 each.

332. Cotton application, imitation filet, from France; 5 centimeters square; machine-made; invoiced at 1.20 francs ($0.22) per dozen; retails at $0.22 each.

333. Cheap cotton fabric application, from France; 5 centimeters square; invoiced at $0.88 franc ($0.17) per dozen; retails at $0.11 each.

334. Cotton fabric application of cheap machine manufacture; round-scalloped edges; 5 centimeters diameter; invoiced at 1 franc ($0.19) per dozen; retails at $0.17 each.

335. Cheap cotton fabric application, of French manufacture; trefoil design; 2½ centimeters square; very cheap; invoiced at 0.19 franc ($0.04) per dozen; retails at $0.04 each.

336. Cheap cotton French application; 2½ centimeters square; invoiced at 0.45 franc ($0.09) per dozen; retails at $0.05 each.

337. Similar to No. 336; 3 centimeters square; invoiced at 0.98 franc ($0.19) per dozen; retails at $0.06 each.

338. Machine-embroidered cheap application, from France; 2½ centimeters square; invoiced at 0.22 franc ($0.04) per dozen; retails at $0.04 each.

339. Small cotton application, from France; 2½ centimeters square; invoiced at 0.25 franc ($0.05) per dozen; retails at $0.05 each.

340. French cotton application, machine embroidered; 5 centimeters square; invoiced at 1.35 francs ($0.26) per dozen; retails at $0.11 each.

341. Handmade filet application, lion design, triangular shape, made in France from linen thread; retails at 1.60 m/n ($0.70) each.

342. Similar to No. 341, but square in shape and with rose design; 13 centimeters square; retails at 1 m/n ($0.44) each.

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343. Handmade linen Cluny application, made in France (Le Puy); round in shape, with design of face; 14 centimeters diameter; retails at 1.30 m/n ($0.57) each.

344. Handmade Irish crochet cotton lace application, of French manufacture, from Chelles, near Paris; 8 centimeters diameter; retails at 0.80 m/n ($0.35) each.

345. Black soutache application on tulle foundation, made in France; triangular shape; scroll design; invoiced at 8.90 francs ($1.69) per meter, 4½ figures to meter; retails at $1.62 each.

346. Similar to No. 345, but in colors, green, red, and black predominating; invoiced at 8.50 francs ($1.62) per meter; retails at $1.62 each.

347. Black jet and bead application on tulle, from France; elliptical shape; invoiced at 5.70 francs ($1.08) per meter; retails at $3.78 per meter.

348. Fancy colored bead trimmings on black tulle, with tiny silver flower; from France; invoiced at 1.40 francs ($0.27) per meter; retails at $0.86 per meter.

349. Fancy bead trimming, similar to No. 348; 1 centimeter wide; on black tulle, with chain-stitch embroidery in silver thread; invoiced at 1.75 francs ($0.33) per meter; retails at $1.08 per meter.

350. Similar to No. 349, but 2 centimeters wide, with gold embroidered stars; of French manufacture; invoiced at 2.70 francs ($0.51) per meter; retails at $1.84 per meter.

351. Fancy silver and gold embroidered trimming on black chiffon, of French manufacture; 4 centimeters wide; invoiced at 2.90 francs ($0.55) per meter; retails at $1.70 per meter.

352. Fancy applied bead trimming, from France; silver thread embroidered on black tulle, and with colored beads; invoiced at 2.40 francs ($0.46) per meter; retails at $1.40 per meter.

353. Similar to No. 352; embroidered with gold thread on wide black tulle; invoiced at 2.60 francs ($0.49) per meter; retails at $1.50 per meter. From 2 to 3½ centimeters wide.

354. Black 4-centimeter trimming made in France; steel beads sewn onto black tulle with artificial silk thread; invoiced at 2.40 francs ($0.46) per meter; retails at $1.50 per meter.

355. Similar to No. 354, black beads instead of steel; invoiced at 2.10 francs ($0.40) per meter; retails at $1.50 per meter.

356. White bead trimming sewn on white tulle, from France; 4½ centimeters wide; mica-spangled borders; invoiced at 3.50 francs ($0.66) per meter; retails at $2.16 per meter.

357. Similar to No. 356, but in black jet and spangles; invoiced at 3.10 francs ($0.59) per meter; retails at $2.16 per meter.

358. Black steel bead and spangle trimming, sewn on tulle, from France; 5½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 3.65 francs ($0.69) per meter; retails at $2.38 per meter.

359. Similar to No. 358, in black beads and jet; invoiced at 3.35 francs ($0.64) per meter; retails at $2.38 per meter.

360. Fancy blue-green silk embroidered on black tulle with gilt thread, made in France; used for applications; invoiced at 4.10 francs ($0.78) per meter; retails at $2.59 per meter.

361. Trimming to match sample No. 360; 5 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3.40 francs per meter; retails at $2.27 per meter.

362. Trimming in fancy blue-green silk, sewn on black tulle, from France; 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at 1.65 francs ($0.31) per meter; retails at $0.97 per meter.

363. Similar to No. 362, in black; 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at 1.80 francs ($0.34) per meter; retails at $1.08 per meter.

364. Dark gray soutache cord; made in France; invoiced at 5 francs ($0.95) per 100 meters; retails at $0.04 per meter.

365. Navy blue twisted silk tassel for coat or suit adornment; top finished in macramé, four-leaf design; made in France; invoiced at 30 francs ($5.70) per dozen; retails at $1.62 each.

366. Plain black silk tassel with ball top, made in France; invoiced at 3.25 francs ($0.62) per dozen; retails at $0.22 each.

367. Black silk tassel with fancy two-leafed top, made in France; invoiced at 12 francs ($2.28) per dozen; retails at $0.81 each.

368. Light blue silk tassel with ball top and corded trimming, from France; invoiced at 21 francs ($3.99 per dozen; retails at $1.30 each.

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369. White silk tassel adornment for suit or cloak; corded top; made in France; invoiced at 16 francs $3.05 per dozen; retails at $0.76 each.

370. Pink silk tassel with corded top and three pendant tassels, made in France; for cloak or suit adornment; invoiced at 14 francs ($2.66) per dozen; retails at $0.76 each.

RIBBONS.

371. White cotton belt ribbon for waistband or dresses; sold in black and white; made in St. Etienne, France; retails at 0.90 m/n ($0.40) per meter.

372. Black taffeta silk ribbon from St. Etienne, France; used for trimming hats, hair ribbons, dress trimming, etc.; in all colors; 9½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.80 m/n ($0.35) per meter.

373. Same as No. 372; 13 centimeters wide; retails at 1.20 m/n ($0.53) per meter.

374. Same as No. 372; 17½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.70 m/n ($0.75) per meter.

375. Black "faille" pure silk ribbon, made in St. Etienne, France; high quality ribbon; used for various purposes, especially trimming hats; 1¾ centimeters wide; retails at 0.30 m/n ($0.13) per meter.

376. Same as No. 375; 8½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.10 m/n ($0.48) per meter.

377. Same as No. 375; 13½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.60 m/n ($0.70) per meter.

378. Same as No. 375; 17½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.80 m/n ($0.79) per meter.

379. Same as No. 375; 19 centimeters wide; retails at 2 m/n ($0.88) per meter.

380. Black moire silk ribbon of fair quality; made in St. Etienne, France, in all colors; 1½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.20 m/n ($0.09) per meter.

381. Same as No. 380; 2½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.30 m/n ($0.13) per meter.

382. Same as No. 380; 4½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.50 m/n ($0.22) per meter.

383. Same as No. 380; 5½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.70 m/n ($0.31) per meter.

384. Same as No. 380; 8 centimeters wide; retails at 0.90 m/n ($0.40) per meter.

385. Same as No. 380; 12 centimeters wide; retails at 1.30 m/n ($0.57) per meter.

386. Same as No. 380; 14½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.50 m/n ($0.66) per meter.

387. Same as No. 380, in red; 3 centimeters wide; retails at 0.40 m/n ($0.18) per meter.

388. Same as No. 380, in salmon color; 5½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.90 m/n ($0.40) per meter.

389. Same as No. 380, in blue; 8½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.30 m/n ($0.67) per meter.

390. Same as No. 380, in green; 13½ centimeters wide; retails at 2 m/n ($0.88) per meter. This class of ribbon is also sold in white, pink, and pale blue.

391. Taffeta silk ribbon, lavender color, made in St. Etienne, France; 1½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.20 m/n ($0.09) per meter.

392. Same as No. 391, in pale blue; 2½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.30 m/n ($0.13) per meter.

393. Same as No. 391, in royal purple; 4½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.60 m/n ($0.26) per meter.

394. Same as No. 391, in cerise; 5½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.75 m/n ($0.33) per meter.

395. Same as No. 391, in yellow; 8 centimeters wide; retails at 0.90 m/n ($0.40) per meter.

396. Same as No. 391, in electric blue; 10 centimeters wide; retails at 1.20 m/n ($0.53) per meter.

397. Same as No. 391, in gray; 13½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.40 m/n ($0.62) per meter.

398. Same as No. 391, in Saxe blue; 16½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.90 m/n ($0.84) per meter.

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399. Satin ribbon, made in St. Etienne, France; color red; 2½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.35 m/n ($0.15) per meter.

400. Same as No. 399, in turquoise blue; 4½ centimeters wide; retails at 0.50 m/n ($0.22) per meter.

401. Same as No. 399, in blue; good grade; 6 centimeters wide; retails at 0.75 m/n ($0.33) per meter.

402. Same as No. 399, in dark blue; 9 centimeters wide; retails at 0.50 m/n ($0.22) per meter.

403. Same as No. 399, in China blue; 13½ centimeters wide; retails at 1.40 m/n ($0.62) per meter.

404. Double satin ribbon, from France; pale blue; used largely for trimming underwear; ½ centimeter wide; retails at 0.20 m/n ($0.09) per meter.

405. Same as No. 404; 1 centimeter wide; retails at 0.45 m/n ($0.20) per meter.

406. Same as No. 404; 2 centimeters wide; retails at 0.65 m/n ($0.29 per meter.

407. Same as No. 404; 3 centimeters wide; retails at 1 m/n ($0.44) per meter.

408. Same as No. 404; 5 centimeters wide; retails at 1.10 m/n ($0.48) per meter.

409. Washable silk ribbon from St. Etienne, France; pale blue color; ½ centimeter wide; retails at 1.20 m/n ($0.53) per piece.

410. Same as No. 409, in white; 1 centimeter wide; retails at 1.90 m/n ($0.84) per piece.

411. Same as No. 409, in pale blue; 1½ centimeters wide; retails at 2.90 ($1.28) per piece.

412. Same as No. 409, in pale pink; 3 centimeters wide; retails at 0.45 m/n ($0.20) per meter.

413. Better quality washable silk ribbon, pink; ½ centimeter wide; retails at 1.25 m/n ($0.55) per piece.

414. Same as No. 413, in yellow; 1 centimeter wide; retails at 2.20 m/n ($0.97) per piece.

415. Same as No. 413, in pale blue; 1½ centimeters wide; retails at 3.40 m/n ($1.50) per piece.

416. Same as No. 413, in pale yellow; 3 centimeters wide; retails at 0.50 m/n ($0.22) per meter.

417. Yellow silk ribbon of French manufacture; 2 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3.15 francs ($0.60) per piece of 10 meters.

418. Pale blue ribbon, of coarser quality, from France; 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at 3.20 francs ($0.61) per piece of 10 meters; retails at $0.17 per meter.

419. Pale blue ribbon, better quality, from France; 2½ centimeters wide; invoiced at 3.13½ francs ($0.60) per piece of 10 meters; retails at $0.17 per meter.

420. Pale blue satin ribbon, from France; 2¾ centimeters wide; invoiced at 4.30 francs ($0.82) per piece of 15 meters; retails at $0.17 per meter.

421 and 422. Pale blue satin ribbon, French; 3 centimeters wide; invoiced at 4.75 francs ($0.90) per piece of 10 meters; retails at $0.15 per meter.

423. Sample card of ribbon samples, prepared by Caffera & Escalante, of Montevideo, showing various widths and qualities of ribbons, in different colors.

424 and 425. Samples of English feather-stitched braid for covering seams; plain white, 1 centimeter wide, white with blue figure, 1½ centimeters wide; both invoiced at $3.89 per box of six dozen packets; retails at $0.09 per packet.

426 and 427. Samples of English feather-stitched braid for covering seams, better grade; plain white, and pink and white, machine embroidered; narrow, less than 1 centimeter wide; invoiced at $5.40 per box of 12 dozen packets; retails at $0.11 per packet.

LIST OF DEALERS.

Lists of importers, wholesale and retail dealers, and manufacturers of wearing apparel in Argentina, submitted in connection with the foregoing report, may be obtained from the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce or its district and cooperative offices. Refer to file 2851.

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 69

WEARING APPAREL IN BOLIVIA

PREPARED BY

WILLIAM A. MONTAVON
Commercial Attaché

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, May 24, 1918.

SIR: There is submitted herewith a report on Wearing Apparel in Bolivia, which was prepared by Commercial Attaché William A. Montavon. The report sets forth the unusual conditions in Bolivia, with regard to climate, type of population, etc., that affect the market for wearing apparel, and treats in detail the somewhat limited but expanding market for all kinds of imported clothing. In the final section on merchandising, the discussion of European sales methods should be of special value to the American exporter who wishes to make headway against European competition.

Respectfully,

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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WEARING APPAREL IN BOLIVIA.

INTRODUCTION.

Bolivia is located in the heart of the South American Continent with Brazil on the north and east, Paraguay and Argentina on the south, and Chile and Peru on the west. The Boletin de la Dirección General de Estadística y Estudios Geográficos gives the area as 1,332,809 square kilometers (514,464 square miles) and the estimated population in 1914 as 2,520,538. The country is divided into eight Departments, two national Territories, and one "Delegación Nacional." The following table shows the area and population of each administrative division, together with the capitals and their population in 1914:

Administrative divisions.	Square miles.	Population.	Capitals and population.
Chuquisaca	36,342	290,296	Sucre (26,761).
Cochabamba	25,288	465,991	Cochabamba (28,014).
El Beni	95,354	45,695	Trinidad (5,496).
El Chaco Territory	46,561	11,795	Villa Montes (884).
La Paz	40,686	632,775	La Paz (86,742).
Northwest Territory	27,939	45,273	Riberalta (2,550).
Oruro	20,657	122,621	Oruro (20,349).
Potosi	45,031	462,373	Potosi (26,765).
Santa Cruz	145,039	297,620	Santa Cruz (23,469).
Tarija	31,567	146,099	Tarija (8,934).
Total	514,464	2,520,538	

Most of the foreign trade of Bolivia, both export and import, originates in the central Departments of La Paz, Oruro, and Potosi. These Departments are all situated in the mountain region, and their capital cities and chief centers of population are reached by the railways. About 90 per cent of the manufactured goods imported into Bolivia is intended for consumption in these Departments and a considerable portion of the imports intended for other parts of the country is handled through commission firms having headquarters at La Paz or Oruro.

The following table shows the foreign trade of Bolivia in 1915, by Departments:

Departments.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Metric tons.	Value.a	Metric tons.	Value.a
La Paz	30,084	$3,350,201	27,407	$7,619,788
Potosi	29,978	2,513,029	44,701	19,847,410
Oruro	23,034	2,192,045	11,555	5,491,089
Northwest Territory	1,475	230,522	3,999	3,500,579
Beni	1,305	182,385	1,212	641,797
Tarija	872	178,680	822	125,066
Santa Cruz	689	93,693	1,259	295,463
Cochabamba	514	203,986	830	471,354
Chuquisaca	244	85,285	685	91,594
Total	88,195	9,029,826	92,490	38,084,140

a Conversions from the boliviano are made throughout this report at the rate of 40 cents; the exact equivalent is 38.93 cents.

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An official estimate of the population in 1914 placed the total at 2,521,000. Other estimates are lower than this. Of this total it is estimated that 300,000 are uncivilized Indians. There are probably not more than 300,000 inhabitants of pure-white ancestry in the Republic, of which number about 6,000 are foreigners. The remainder of the population, approximately 2,000,000, is made up of individuals and groups with more or less Indian blood, many of whom have attained to positions of social and economic importance. Cholo is the name by which this element of the population is usually designated. The conditions are so unfavorable to human life in the Bolivian highlands that none but the hardy Indian and the cholo who has inherited much of the rugged physique of his ancestors can hope long to cope with them successfully. From this element of the population must come the workers in Bolivia. Upon this element must depend, for the present at least, the development of agriculture, of mining, and of other industries. To this element the foreign merchant has to address himself if he is to find in Bolivia anything but a most restricted market for his manufactures.

NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE COUNTRY.

The mountainous region of Bolivia comprises most of the southwestern and south-central portions of the country. It begins at the western boundary with the western Cordillera and stretches eastward to include the eastern Cordillera, or Cordillera Real, across an intervening section of cross ranges and valleys and high plateau (altiplanicie). This section contains the principal cities of the country. The eastern Cordillera curves northwestward to the Peruvian frontier, and to the north the mountains break away abruptly and there are deep canons and valleys where the climate is always warm and the vegetation abundant. To the north and east of the Cordillera Real, as far as the low hills and valleys of the Brazilian frontier, are fertile tropical plains, and farther to the south are vast unexploited pasture lands, changing to forest country near the Paraguayan border. The warm valleys lying at an elevation of 2,500 to 5,000 feet between the spurs of the Cordilleras on the north and northeast are called the Yungas.

The valleys (sierra) of the mountainous region of southwestern and central Bolivia have an elevation up to 7,500 feet and an agreeable climate at all seasons. Vegetation is varied and abundant and subtropical crops flourish. The altiplanicie, or plateau, in this same region is about 500 miles long and has an elevation of about 13,000 feet. In the northern part of the plateau is Lake Titicaca, the highest navigable body of water in the world. Here the climate is raw and cold and only the most hardy vegetation flourishes. A yellowish-green grass, characteristic of this section, affords pasturage to the large herds of alpaca. The southern part of the altiplanicie contains Lake Poopo and the great salt lakes and plains of Uyuni and also important deposits of nitrate and borax, but it has no rivers and practically no vegetation. Copper, silver, and other minerals are found in the ridges to the eastward.

In the Yungas and the plains of eastern Bolivia are found the wild rubber forests, the coca tree, from the leaves of which cocaine is derived, and much Peruvian bark, the source of quinine. Here are

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grown also cacao, sugar cane, coffee, and cereals. The fruits and vegetables of the Yungas are an almost indispensable addition to the food supply of the mountainous region to the west, which constitutes the most populous part of the country.

CLIMATE.

With the exception of a very small corner in the extreme south, Bolivia lies within the Torrid Zone. It must not be thought, however, that the climate of Bolivia is tropical. It has been estimated that the average temperature falls 1° for every 588 feet increase of altitude above sea level. As a large part of the Bolivian sierra is many thousand feet above sea level, this region enjoys an average temperature many degrees lower than that of other regions of the Torrid Zone. Moreover, a fall of 25° to 35° during the night is not unusual in the Bolivian sierra and the altiplanicie, and the fall in the lowlands, though not so great, is not to be overlooked in a discussion of the Bolivian market for wearing apparel.

In the Yungas an average temperature of approximately 70° has been recorded, with a variation of not more than 25° between the hours of sunshine and the hours of night and between the seasons, which in this region are not well marked. In the sierra and the altiplanicie the average temperature is about 55°, with a variation between the hours of sunshine and night of not more than 35°. Here the seasons are more definite. During the winter months, from March to October, snowstorms are not unusual in the altiplanicie, and the temperature falls as low as several degrees below zero. In the dining cars of the Antofagasta-Bolivia Railway, I have seen the water frozen at noon in the vicinity of Uyuni, and the cold of the nights in the sleeping cars used by this railway is a thing never to be forgotten.

Nowhere in the world are there to be found industrial centers and considerable populations at altitudes greater than those of several of the important cities of the Bolivian sierra. Sections of the city of Potosi are more than 14,000 feet above sea level, while parts of the tin and silver mines in the cerro overlooking the city are 1,000 feet higher. In a list of 150 of the principal centers of population in Bolivia, prepared by the secretary of the Geographical Society of La Paz, 102 centers listed are situated at an altitude of 8,000 feet or more. Probably two-thirds of the population of Bolivia and four-fifths of its urban population dwell in the altiplanicie at an altitude of at least 12,000 feet. Several mining camps, some of them of great importance, are located at altitudes between 15,000 and 16,000 feet above sea level.

The months during which Bolivia may be visited with the least discomfort are April, May, and June. During these months La Paz and other cities of the altiplanicie and sierra enjoy cool, sunshiny days with cold nights, and the difference between the temperature of the day and that of the night is not so noticeable as during other months. November and December are probably the least agreeable months in the mountainous region. Although the cold by day is not so extreme as during other months, at sundown it frequently hails and

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rains, and the drop in temperature at night is very great. Persons visiting Bolivia during these months are subject to severe colds and even pneumonia.

TRADE ROUTES.

Since the readjustment of the boundary with Chile, following the war of the Pacific (1879–1881), Bolivia has had no coast line. As a consequence, the goods entering into the foreign trade of Bolivia must be received at ports controlled by one or the other of the Republics upon which Bolivia borders. Goods intended for consumption in the northern and eastern sections of Bolivia are sometimes transported in river steamers up the Amazon or the Plate River and discharged at Bolivian ports situated on these great inland waterways. The minerals, which make up the bulk of the exports of Bolivia, are for the most part produced in the Andean highlands, however; and these, even before the opening of the Panama Canal and the consequent shortening of the route to the eastern seaboard of the United States and to Europe, found their most economical outlet by way of the Pacific. As a result the Pacific ports of Mollendo (Peru), Arica (Chile), and Antofagasta (Chile) have long enjoyed an importance in Bolivian trade never attained by the river ports of eastern Bolivia. The completion of the La Quiaca-Tupiza section of the Bolivian national railway will provide an all-rail route through Argentina to the Atlantic. It is not probable that this route will attract much of the foreign trade of Bolivia other than that conducted with Argentina, but it is hoped by the promoters of the project that this trade may be much stimulated.

Eighty-five to ninety per cent of the foreign trade of Bolivia passes through the three Pacific ports mentioned, and the trade routes to Bolivia through these ports are therefore the only ones of practical interest to the American exporter. In former years and until the opening of a shorter route through the Panama Canal, Bolivian trade with Europe and points in the Atlantic was obliged to make the voyage through the Strait of Magellan; and as a result Antofagasta, the most southerly of the three ports, enjoyed a great superiority over the other two in respect to Bolivian trade. This port is connected by rail with Uyuni and Oruro, important centers of the mining industry in Bolivia, and through these with Potosi, Llallagua, Uncia, Cochabamba, and other important industrial and trade centers; the road has recently been extended to La Paz.

The distance between Oruro and Antofagasta by this route is 710 miles and the time required for the journey is two nights and a day, with an additional eight hours between Oruro and La Paz. The road is being rebuilt with a meter gauge from La Paz to the frontier between Bolivia and Chile, where it connects with the narrower gauge of the Chilean section. A change of cars is necessary at the frontier and again just before reaching La Paz at El Alto, where passengers are conveyed down the steep grade into the city by electric locomotives. Rails have been laid over a new route between Viacha and La Paz, which, when completed, will make it possible for the Oruro trains to enter the city without the change at El Alto.

The Arica–La Paz Railway, connecting the capital of Bolivia with the port of Arica, is only 264 miles long and when trains are operated

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under favorable conditions the trip from the seaboard to La Paz may be made in 14 hours. The grades on this road are steep and for much of the distance the rack system is employed. The highest point on this line, 14,108 feet above sea level, is reached within a few hours after the train leaves sea level at Arica and passengers frequently suffer from mountain sickness. This railway reaches the copper mines at Corocoro by means of a short spur but does not otherwise serve directly any of the important industrial or trade centers of Bolivia except La Paz, the capital and most important distributing point in the Republic. Owing to a lack of rolling stock and other difficulties the service over the Arica-La Paz route has not been so efficient as might be desired.

The third of these lines of communication between Bolivia and the seaboard starts at Mollendo, in Peru, and goes by way of Arequipa (Peru) to Puno on Lake Titicaca, where freight has to be transshipped to lake steamers for transportation to Guaqui, the starting point of the Guaqui-La Paz Railway. Though a part of the national railway system of Bolivia and owned by the Bolivian Government, this railway is operated in accordance with the terms of a lease by the Peruvian Corporation, a British organization that operates most of the national railways of Peru, including the Mollendo-Puno line of the Southern Railways. By far the pleasantest trip between the seacoast and La Paz is made over the Mollendo route. Leaving sea level at noon, the passenger arrives in Arequipa, at an altitude of about 8,000 feet, within a few hours. Arequipa being an important distributing center for the prosperous agricultural and mining districts of southern Peru, the salesman may profitably spend several days here. Between Arequipa and Lake Titicaca the route reaches its greatest altitude at Crucero Alto, 14,688 feet above sea level. The passenger who has had a rest at Arequipa runs little risk of suffering from mountain sickness. The trip from Arequipa to the lake shore at Puno consumes 12 hours. The trip across the lake is made in one night and the steamers are not uncomfortable. From Guaqui to La Paz, the trip takes only a few hours. The distance between Mollendo and La Paz is about 563 miles, and the trip, including the stops mentioned, consumes two days.

As is to be expected, there is keen competition between these three rail routes from the seacoast to Bolivia. The Antofagasta route gives a direct outlet for the tin and other minerals of central and southern Bolivia. It has the double disadvantage of being the longest route and of communicating with a port that is farther removed than either Mollendo or Arica from the Panama Canal and consequently from the markets of North America and Europe. Extensive port improvements are planned for Antofagasta, however, and probably when these are completed the handling of Bolivian cargo through this port will be more efficient and more expeditious than through either of the other ports.

The Arica railway is the shortest route between the coast and La Paz and reaches the copper-producing region of Corocoro and indirectly other mining centers of Bolivia. It has the disadvantage of difficult grades and high cost of maintenance, due to long sections of rack road and other expensive equipment. By granting a reduction in freight rates to goods of Chilean origin and by special con-

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cessions to foreign cargo discharged at Arica for Bolivia, this road has been able to compete with the other two. Of late, however, the shortage of cars and locomotives has driven much of the cargo even from Corocoro to the longer Mollendo route. Eventually, however, the Arica route may prove the best for Bolivian freight.

The Mollendo route passes through a productive country and is shorter than the Antofagasta route. Mollendo, too, is nearer to the Panama Canal. But at Mollendo ships have to discharge cargo and passengers into small boats a mile or more offshore. A heavy surf runs at this point at practically all seasons and steamers often find it impossible to discharge at all. By the provisions of a recent trade convention between Peru and Bolivia, cargo intended for Bolivia is conceded special privileges at Mollendo, and the Peruvian Corporation has reduced freight rates on such cargo to a minimum. As a result, a larger amount of goods than usual is being shipped by this route. Goods intended for Bolivia and routed by way of Mollendo should be strongly crated, care being taken, however, to keep the weight of the crates at a minimum so as to reduce the ultimate cost of hauling as well as the import duties, which are frequently based on gross weight.

The foreign trade of Bolivia for 1915 was distributed among the various routes mentioned as follows:

Ports.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Metric tons.	Value.	Metric tons.	Value.
Pacific:				
Antofagasta	41,183	$3,749,793	45,584	$21,254,518
Arica	17,132	1,421,904	32,021	9,847,539
Mollendo	21,774	2,781,766	2,365	1,324,367
Total Pacific	80,089	7,953,463	79,970	32,426,424
Atlantic:				
Plate	5,493	709,232	7,286	1,556,335
Amazon	2,613	347,131	5,234	4,101,385
Total Atlantic	8,106	1,056,363	12,520	5,657,720
Grand total	88,195	9,009,826	92,500	38,084,144

TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES.

The first railways projected in Bolivia were intended primarily for moving ores. They consist of short spurs running from the Antofagasta-Bolivia and other trunk lines into the near-by mining regions of the Departments of La Paz, Oruro, and Potosi. Except the short spur that is being extended from Oruro to Cochabamba, the agricultural regions of Bolivia and all the vast stretch of plains to the east remain entirely cut off from the commercial and industrial centers. The causes of this situation are to be found in the sparseness of the population and the comparatively slight agricultural development of the country. The present national government of Bolivia is awake to the necessity for the further extension of the railways into the interior of the Republic. A spur leaving the Antofagasta-Bolivia trunk line at Oruro is being extended through Cochabamba and will tap a rich agricultural section. Another spur

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from the same line has been extended to Potosi, and its further extension to Sucre and beyond is projected. Since the outbreak of the war, work has been practically abandoned on the Atocha-Tupiza section of the international railway connecting La Paz with Buenos Aires and the Atlantic seaboard; but it is planned to continue the construction of this road if the necessary funds can be obtained.

An electric railway is being constructed out of La Paz, which will eventually connect the capital with Rurrenbaque on the Beni River. This electric railway will tap the rich Yungas and make more readily available in La Paz the agricultural products of this fertile region.

Years will probably pass before Bolivia will have a fully developed system of internal railways. Until that time, the trader from abroad will of necessity limit his activity to the trading and mining centers that are easily reached by the railways, leaving to the local merchant the extension of sales into the interior.

Mollendo is reached by three principal lines of passenger and cargo steamers: The Peruvian Steamship Co. (Cia. Peruana de Vapores y Dique del Callao); South American Steamship Co. (Cia. Sud Americana de Vapores), commonly spoken of as the Chilean Line; and Pacific Steam Navigation Co., an English line. The Pacific Steam Navigation Co. and the South American Steamship Co. operate regular steamers farther south than Mollendo and make both Arica and Antofagasta. There are also several lines of freight steamers, some of which have accommodations for a limited number of passengers. Among these are the North Pacific Line, the New York and South American Steamship Co. (Merchants' Line), and the Toyo Kisen Kaisha, a Japanese line. Prior to the war these ports were also served by the Kosmos Line, the Roland Line, and the Johnson Line.

FOREIGN TRADE.

Together with other Republics of South America that did a large part of their foreign trading with Europe before the outbreak of the war, Bolivia has gone through a period of serious financial disturbance during the last three years. In 1913 the country was prosperous. The price of metals, which constitute the chief exports of the country, reached a high figure and the foreign trade for that year amounted to nearly $60,000,000, the highest point ever reached in the history of the Republic. There was considerable overbuying, especially in certain kinds of textiles, knit goods, etc., and stocks purchased in 1913 are still unexhausted. Early in 1914 the price of tin, the most important money product of Bolivia, fell, investments that had been coming freely from Europe ceased, and Bolivia began to enter a period of hard times even before the outbreak of war in Europe. The interruption of trade occasioned by the war left Bolivia in a trying position. The market for tin and other Bolivian minerals was closed; connections with European exporters, who had supplied the merchants of Bolivia with goods, were broken off; there was a demand for the immediate liquidation of accounts; and exchange rose rapidly. For several months business was paralyzed.

As a protection to the financial institutions the Government declared a moratorium and on August 10, 1914, removed the duties formerly collected on many imports. The panic proved short-lived, however; the moratorium was scarcely necessary and but few mer-

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chants took advantage of its provisions. The removal of duties did not stop the falling off of imports, however. Deprived of its income, which had been derived largely from foreign trade, the Government was forced to make temporary loans in the United States and at home. A rigid system of economy was adopted. Salaries of all public officials were reduced 33⅓ per cent and most of the public works were suspended. In 1915 the price of metals began to rise. Since this time trade has taken an upward turn. The Government has paid off its temporary loans placed in the United States. The moratorium was practically declared off before the middle of 1916, and Bolivia is again enjoying a period of relative prosperity.

The following figures show the figures for the foreign trade of Bolivia in 1913, 1914, and 1915: Imports—$21,905,133 in 1913, $15,904,489 in 1914, and $9,029,826 in 1915; exports—$37,488,605 in 1913, $26,320,456 in 1914, and $38,084,140 in 1915; total—$59,393,738 in 1913, $42,224,945 in 1914, and $47,113,966 in 1915. Figures for the whole of 1916 are not available; but the commerce for the first few months showed a large increase over the corresponding period of 1915.

The following is a statement of the imports and exports of Bolivia, by countries of origin and destination, for 1913, 1914, and 1915:

Countries.	Imports.			Exports.		
	1913	1914	1915	1913	1914	1915
United States	$1,617,641	$1,854,700	$1,906,516	$223,790	$981,001	$10,007,239
Peru	1,210,303	1,143,432	1,708,405	13,048	405,332	31,704
Great Britain	4,440,508	3,123,504	1,453,675	30,305,731	20,774,500	26,654,736
Chile	2,223,789	2,194,918	1,349,294	236,207	496,178	298,890
Argentina	1,319,727	1,031,935	590,348	365,539	354,198	579,458
Uruguay	29,658	16,495	4,326	39,254	5,137	9,632
Germany	8,036,545	4,250,120	430,309	3,189,496	1,475,977	25,654
Belgium	903,757	922,529	369,738	1,268,894	755,066	.....
Brazil	397,953	316,246	332,752	5,455	811	66,435
Italy	521,279	305,310	245,977	245	2,250	30,146
Netherlands	1,481	76	213,495	9,891	3,196	.....
France	823,245	423,337	169,838	1,828,736	1,063,000	326,922
Spain	246,308	211,368	98,323	823	3,810	53,324
Other countries	132,939	110,519	156,830	1,496	.....	.....
Total	21,905,133	15,904,489	9,029,826	37,488,605	26,320,456	38,084,140

SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS OF THE BOLIVIAN MARKET.

The temperature in the Bolivian highlands is much like the temperature of the central part of the United States during the fall. The demand is, therefore, for clothing that would be adapted to this section of the country for fall sale. The diffused character of the sunlight in the highlands affects the taste of the people for colors and there is little or no demand for brilliant effects by others than the Indians of the valleys. The sudden fluctuations in temperature between day and night give rise to a considerable demand for warm outer garments, overcoats, sweaters, and top coats; and the fact that the nights are always cold gives rise to a considerable demand for warm blankets and comforters. The feather bed, and especially the feather foot cover, is much in use in the better homes, and, since the supply from Europe has been cut off, the demand for this class of bed covering is considerable in Bolivia.

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Not more than 400,000 of the population of Bolivia dwell in towns or cities, and considerably less than 20 per cent of the total population can be classed as urban. The remaining 80 per cent are engaged in mining on a small scale, or in farming on the sierra and in the valleys. There has been little effort to make even an elementary education available to this large portion of the population. Its standards of living are frequently of the lowest, and as a factor in the market for wearing apparel in Bolivia, this element is almost negligible. The shawl for the women and the poncho, with an occasional sweater vest, for the men, are the garments that distinguish this class of Bolivians. These garments are universally worn. Until recently the shawls and ponchos were the product almost exclusively of the crude hand looms of the Indian shepherdesses found throughout the sierras and the puñas. The woolen mills of several European countries have studied the Bolivian shawl and today it is not unusual to see the Bolivian Indian woman wearing a shawl from Hamburg or Manchester, instead of the crude one she might have woven on her primitive loom. The poncho, which is a blanket, with a slit in the center for the head to pass through, has similarly been studied, and not a few ponchos are being imported. There is reason to believe that a poncho made of some waterproofed material and not too expensive might find a ready sale in Bolivia. The stock of shawls and blankets on hand at the outbreak of the war is about exhausted, and there is at present a strong demand in most Bolivian cities for good American substitutes for this class of garment.

The proportion of stout men and women in Bolivia is considerably smaller than it is in the United States and the demand for clothing for stout people is correspondingly less. The average Bolivian man is small-waisted in proportion to his height and is not so tall as the average man in the United States. The strongest demand will be for suits and other clothing of the smaller sizes. The women are of even less average stature than the men, and there will be found to exist a demand for suits of sizes suited for misses and girls in the United States and of styles such as are worn by women of more advanced age.

Except for the cholita women in La Paz and in such semitropical cities as Sucre and Cochabamba, there is little demand for outer garments of bright colors. La Paz and most of the other population centers of Bolivia are situated at extreme altitudes from 12,000 feet upward. At these altitudes, although they are well within the Tropics, the sunlight is diffused to a great extent and affects people's tastes for color schemes much as does the sunlight of the fall months in the temperate zones. Both men and women prefer the duller shades of gray, brown, blue, etc., to brighter or lighter colors. There is a predominance of black at all times. For women black is prescribed for church going, and a great number of men prefer to wear black at church and in attending public gatherings.

There is no demand for such warm-weather garments as are worn in midsummer in the United States. As has already been pointed out the high altitude at which most Bolivian cities are situated gives them a cool climate, and after sundown, even in midsummer, one unaccustomed to the climate finds woolen underwear and heavy cloth-

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ing necessary. There is, therefore, a demand only for medium-weight and heavy suits for both men and women. Even women's evening gowns are seldom sleeveless; they are designed so as to permit the wearing of warm undergarments. Bolivian houses are not provided with fireplaces or other means for heating the rooms, and in the evenings one could not wear light clothing with comfort, even in summer time. As a result, there is a demand for warm jackets and blouses, of which many are imported from both Spain and France. There is also a considerable demand for men's and women's coat sweaters, of both wool and cotton. The demand for lightweight overcoats at La Paz and for heavyweight ulsters for excursions in the mountains is strong.

BOLIVIAN CITIES AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE.

LA PAZ AN IMPORTANT DISTRIBUTING CENTER.

La Paz, the largest city of Bolivia and the political capital of the Republic, is also the principal trade center. The Department in which La Paz is located is one of the richest in mineral resources. The superiority enjoyed by La Paz in climate and living conditions has made it the center from which most of the great mining enterprises of the Departments of Oruro and Cochabamba are directed and the chief distributing center for northern and central Bolivia. At La Paz are located the main offices of the principal banks, of the exporting and importing houses, and of the chief industrial and mining companies. Two weeks or more will be required to cover La Paz thoroughly. In all Bolivian cities it will be necessary for the salesman to investigate for himself the credit of his customers, to prepare in minute detail the shipping directions that are to accompany each of his orders, and to attend to many things that in the United States he might well leave to the judgment of his shipping department at the factory.

OTHER IMPORTANT CITIES.

Importers of wearing apparel, with headquarters at La Paz, cover the rest of the Republic with their salesmen or have branch stores doing a retail and wholesale business in such centers as Oruro, Cochabamba, and Potosi. It would, however, be an error for the salesmen of knit goods and wearing apparel to conclude that La Paz is the only city in Bolivia worthy of attention. Oruro, Uyuni, and Potosi are important mining centers and their trade extends to the mining camps of the mountains and to the agricultural regions in the valleys. Upon each of these cities a considerable population depends for its supply of imported manufactures. Cochabamba and Sucre, on the other hand, are situated in the lower valleys, where the climate is milder and the sunshine brighter than on the altiplanicie or at La Paz. In these cities there will be found a demand for brighter colors and lighter-weight garments. If he carries samples covering lines sufficiently numerous and diversified, the salesman will find a visit to any of these towns well worth while. The merchants there were not visited frequently by traveling salesmen even during normal times. As a result they usually purchase heavily for stock whenever the opportunity presents itself. At Cochabamba the story is told of a

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European salesman of textiles, knit goods, and wearing apparel who spent several months in this town alone making sales of over $250,000. Sectional prejudices are strong in Bolivian cities, and merchants in Sucre or Cochabamba do not like to acknowledge dependence upon La Paz or Oruro. There is also some economy for these merchants in direct purchase, and the privilege of selecting from a complete line of foreign samples is not frequently enjoyed but is highly appreciated by the average importer even in an interior city of Bolivia.

ORURO AND COCHABAMBA.

From La Paz to Oruro the trip is comfortably made in the trains of the Bolivian Railway Co. in about eight hours. Oruro is the center of important tin and wolfram mining enterprises and a distributing point for Cochabamba and an important interior region. Here the demand will be chiefly for warm garments, heavy cotton and woolen underwear, woolen socks, sweaters, corduroy trousers and coats, overcoats, raincoats, and such garments as are usually worn by miners in cold weather. The wage level is low among the Indian miners and their purchasing power is limited. Goods for this market, therefore, must be inexpensive and suitable for hard service. There is small demand for clothing for European and American engineers and superintendents. Not more than a week should be required to cover Oruro.

From Oruro the salesman should go to Cochabamba; a spur of the Antofagasta-Bolivia Railway is being extended to connect these two towns. The trip can be made with comfort and is not very expensive. Cochabamba is situated in the valley and enjoys perpetual spring. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the people in Cochabamba and of the surrounding country. Here the demand will be for garments of lighter weight, with a limited demand for clothing for miners and others whose occupation takes them into the mountains. Light conditions at Cochabamba are different from those prevailing at La Paz, and the clothing worn, especially by the women, is brighter and more ornamented. The men and women do much riding in this section and the demand for riding breeches and skirts is considerable. Here, too, will be found some demand for waterproofed capes and overcoats and for ponchos. No determined effort has been made to introduce the rubber poncho into Bolivia and there is reason to believe that an important demand for this garment might be developed at Cochabamba and Sucre. Not more than a week would be required to cover Cochabamba.

COCHABAMBA TO SUCRE.

From Cochabamba the salesman may proceed across country to Sucre. This trip is made on horseback, and pack mules can be engaged at Cochabamba for samples. During October or earlier the trip can be made over well-graded trails, but for several months following October the rivers and creeks are swollen and the trails are liable to be impassable. The most economical way to reach Sucre is to return to Oruro, thence going to Sucre by way of Potosi. From Oruro to Potosi the Bolivian Railway Co. operates a through train. The spur that runs to Potosi leaves the main line of the Bolivia-Anto-

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fagasta Railway at Rio Mulatto and the through trip from Oruro is made in about 20 hours. The weather is liable to be extremely cold on this journey, especially during the night between Oruro and Rio Mulatto, and the traveler should be provided with warm clothing and extra blankets. Indeed it will be wise to enter Bolivia prepared for cold weather; warm clothing will be required everywhere except in Cochabamba and Sucre and at all seasons.

POTOSI, SUCRE, AND UYUNI.

Potosi is much like Oruro as a market for wearing apparel. The climate is cold and bleak, with but little rain. The chief industry is mining. The standard of living among the laborers is not high, and only coarse, heavy garments will sell in quantities. There is, however, an important aristocratic element in Potosi and the market for better-grade garments is perhaps stronger than at Oruro.

From Potosi the 12-hour trip to Sucre is made by auto bus over a wonderful mountain road. The country through which one passes is for the most part barren and unproductive. Sucre is much like Cochabamba in the industries and customs of its people, and the demand for textiles and wearing apparel will be similar. After La Paz, Sucre is the best constructed city in Bolivia. It was the seat of the national Government for many years. There is much culture among the people and the general level of education, together with the standard of living, is comparatively high. Ten days to two weeks will be required in covering Potosi and Sucre, and the trip will be worth while if the salesman carries a sufficiently diversified line of suitable samples.

From Potosi the salesman will leave Bolivia by way of Rio Mulatto and Uyuni. Conditions at Uyuni are much like those of Potosi and Oruro, but the market will be found of less importance. Uyuni and southern Bolivia are covered mostly by firms having their headquarters in Antofagasta.

FOREIGN TRADE IN TEXTILES AND WEARING APPAREL.

The market for ready-to-wear garments in Bolivia and Peru is still little developed. The importation of this class of manufactures began some years ago but has developed slowly. In the official statistics of Bolivia, no effort is made to differentiate the various classes of wearing apparel. A beginning in this direction was made in 1915 and the statistics for that year differentiate men's wear into the three groups of outer garments, other garments, and neckwear. During that year the imports of men's wear were valued at $19,733, as follows: Outer garments, $6,040; other garments, $9,028; neckwear, $4,665. Garments for women and children are imported on a somewhat larger scale than are garments for men. The value of the imports during 1915 is stated to be $110,345, as follows: Garments for women and children, $54,086; lingerie, $53,883; wedding and baptismal robes, $2,376. Making full allowance for undervaluations, etc., it is apparent that the total value of the imports of Bolivia of wearing apparel of the specified classes is considerably less than $200.000 per annum. In addition to goods classed as wearing apparel in the official statistics, shoes, hats, knit goods, under-

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wear, etc., are included in other classifications and probably bring the total imports to about $350,000.

Statistics for imports of wearing apparel into Bolivia in 1916 and 1917, which are not yet available, will doubtless show a considerable increase in the volume of Bolivian trade enjoyed by American manufacturers and exporters. As late as June, 1917, there was a great shortage of all kinds of merchandise, and especially of certain kinds of woolen materials. A few American exporters have been able to take advantage of this situation and have opened relations of a desirable character with the firms of La Paz and other cities. The American products that have been carefully introduced have given satisfaction and are becoming increasingly popular.

The following table shows the quantity and value of the imports into Bolivia of textiles and wearing apparel in 1913, 1914, and 1915:

Articles.	1913		1914		1915	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Cotton goods:[a]	5,602,060	$1,349,570				
Suitings (casinetes)			370,035	$85,119	97,765	$22,464
Bleached (genero blanco)			268,596	61,106	189,644	43,072
Unbleached (tucuyo)			1,812,200	328,845	1,391,891	252,540
Other cotton goods			1,348,973	374,942	406,142	94,532
With wool mixture	20,821	12,545	16,219	9,172	2,515	995
With silk mixture	12,037	17,473	7,450	10,673	2,853	4,261
With other mixture	4,735	1,583	4,474	1,732	2,148	1,738
Woolen goods[a]	1,326,444	678,619				
Baize (long nap)			556,961	261,927	204,425	96,208
Suitings (cassimeres)			99,306	62,616	110,744	52,431
Flannel			1,204	728		
Other woolen goods			216,156	85,240	2,768	1,980
With cotton mixture	177,627	80,964	166,780	64,568	1,394	1,196
With silk mixture	6,045	9,030	4,780	6,296	456	757
Dress goods (other than silk)					65,484	36,143
Silk goods:						
With cotton mixture	4,549	33,830	2,745	16,564	658	3,738
Interwoven with silver	1,248	780	37	408		
Other	3,235	24,070	1,320	10,618	767	5,292
Linen, jute, hemp, etc.	884,576	53,592	239,133	23,501	43,625	4,224
Ore bags					1,454,167	42,681
Embroideries, laces, trimmings (including knit and crochet goods)	339,519	335,127	220,788	206,847	47,166	48,999
Ribbons					2,112	11,922
Lingerie	296,247	197,113	150,042	104,236	83,126	53,883
Garments:						
For women and children	321,514	291,585	208,822	190,148	45,043	54,086
Wedding and baptismal robes			1,956	2,193	2,058	2,376
For men	122,601	96,071	78,469	64,541		
Outer garments					5,114	6,040
Underwear					11,419	9,028
Neckwear			2,815	10,848	1,445	4,665
Hats:						
For men	356,099	292,263	172,547	135,234	100,751	96,233
For women and children	131,711	91,136	55,747	49,202	13,552	10,552
Straw, plain, for men, women, and children			26,405	24,762	14,855	12,825
Shoes:						
Leather[b]	106,448	125,800				
Fine			10,499	11,263	3,636	4,958
Patent			59,748	78,230	16,977	25,636
Other			3,272	2,120	2,057	1,500
Leather and silk	1,728	2,518	146	319	97	209
Leather and other materials	17,286	12,495	278	360	1,332	900
Other kinds of footwear			6,248	4,116	2,304	1,754
Furs, manufactured	4,566	3,261	3,692	7,354	1,530	2,902
Gloves:						
Leather	1,025	5,810	705	4,139	150	929
Other			1,718	3,989	168	586
Leggings, leather					655	469
Other articles	329,878	159,087	136,564	59,479	183,665	17,585
Total	10,071,999	3,874,322	6,256,830	2,363,435	4,516,658	1,032,289

[a] In the official statistics for 1915 and 1914 cotton and woolen goods are subdivided into several distinct groups, whereas in the statistics for 1913 there are no such subdivisions.
[b] Not subdivided in 1913.

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MEN'S WEAR.

In order that the American manufacturer may have a clearer notion of the character of goods demanded by the Bolivian market, it has been thought advisable to include in this report a brief discussion of the more general market for textiles. [This subject is taken up in detail in Special Agents Series No. 158—Textile Markets of Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru, by Special Agent W. A. Tucker, which may be obtained for 15 cents from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.] The following paragraphs discuss the market for textiles only in so far as this discussion will tend to make clearer the character of garments which are now worn in Bolivia and for which the demand may be expected to be strongest.

Textiles for outer garments for men are classified in the Bolivian statistics under the headings of casinetes for cotton goods and cassimeres for woolen goods. Casinetes are coarse cotton goods usually of a bluish-gray color and either striped or checked. The preference is for striped goods. The laborer throughout Bolivia and the Indian wear trousers and vest or blouse made of this material. These garments are frequently lined with unbleached sheeting known in Bolivia as tucuyo. In 1914 there were imported into Bolivia 370,035 pounds of casinetes. The quantity imported during 1913 was considerably greater, but the official statistics for that year give only the totals for imports of cotton goods and make no mention of casinetes.

CASINETES.

Prior to 1914 casinetes did not form a separate classification in the official statistics of cotton imports into Bolivia, and it is not possible to give data covering the subject for 1913, a year during which Bolivian imports were more nearly normal in volume and character than they have been during any subsequent year. The following table shows the volume of imports of this class during 1914 and 1915, together with the countries of origin. The imports were considerably greater in 1913 and have, no doubt, been greater during 1916 than during either of the years of the table, but complete statistics for these years are not available.

Countries of origin.	1914		1915	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Germany	99,424	$22,797	15,100	$3,925
Spain	74,841	16,937	.....	.....
Italy	68,813	15,597	47,067	10,214
United Kingdom	59,776	14,157	4,436	1,004
Belgium	57,986	13,546	11,880	3,036
Argentina	6,008	1,361	14,504	3,187
France	2,121	481	4,046	917
Peru	734	167	198	36
Chile	198	41	534	145
Brazil	154	35	.....	.....
Total	370,055	85,119	97,765	22,464

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In order that the relative importance of the different Bolivian cities as a market for textiles and wearing apparel of this character may be better understood the following figures are given, showing the quantity and value of casinetes consumed in several of the larger centers of population in 1915: La Paz, 43,458 pounds, valued at $9,396; Oruro, 10,726 pounds, valued at $2,510; Potosi, 8,486 pounds, valued at $1,928; all others, 35,095 pounds, valued at $8,630; total, 97,765 pounds, valued at $22,464.

As has already been stated, the year 1915 was one of restricted buying in Bolivia and statistics for casinetes for a normal year do not exist. A study of the volume of cotton goods consumed in Bolivia in normal times, which is approximately 5,500,000 pounds, coupled with the knowledge that of the total amount of cotton goods imported casinetes make up slightly more than 10 per cent, shows that in a normal year the market for this class of cotton goods amounts to approximately 600,000 pounds.

It has been customary for the European mills to study the requirements of the Bolivian consumer with regard to style of goods, color, patterns, etc., and a definite demand has thus been created for the dull blue stripes and gray checks that predominate. At present the stock of this material on hand in La Paz and other Bolivian cities is very low. The supply from Europe has been interfered with by the war and the American mills have not been producing the widths to which the Bolivian market is accustomed. The demand is for this class of cotton goods in a 54-inch width, whereas the American goods offered are 32 or 34 inches wide. In the cutting the wider material is bound to be more economical. The Bolivian laborer is extremely conservative and slow to adopt new things.

CLOTHING FOR THE LABORER.

Clothing for the laborer in Bolivia is of the cheapest variety and for the most part is made at home. There is in the mining centers a certain demand for strong trousers, for overalls, and especially for corduroy trousers. There is also a fair demand for riding breeches. These should be of light woolen material, corduroy, or khaki. The seats should be double or reinforced with buckskin or other leather.

OUTER GARMENTS.

The outfit of the Bolivian Indian and laborer consists of four garments: Casinete trousers, casinete blouse, the gray-goods shirt, and woolen poncho. The casinete trousers worn by Bolivian laborers are unique in design. They are high-waisted and have a yoke 3 to 6 inches wide at the waist, much as drawers have. A row of four to six visible white buttons joins the yoke in front. The legs of the trousers are wide at the hips, the extra width being pleated or gathered to the lower edge of the tight-fitting yoke. The legs of these trousers taper from a width of 12 inches or more at the hips to a width of scarcely 4 inches at the ankle. So tight are they at the bottom that it has been found necessary to slit them halfway up the calf of the leg in order that the foot may pass through more easily in putting them on. These trousers are frequently lined or at least faced with

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coarse cotton cloth. The buttons used are of the cheapest. The trousers are made by women who would otherwise be idle and sell at retail in the public markets for a little over $1 per pair.

The casinete blouse is a garment somewhat like an ordinary vest and somewhat like a sleeveless, collarless coat sweater. The back of this garment is usually made of the same material as the front, namely, a cottonade, or covert goods, spoken of as casinete. The garment is lined with unbleached cotton goods. The buttons are usually made of cheap metal, and the garment, like the casinete trousers, is of the cheapest possible construction. The trousers and vest together are somewhat like the outfit worn instead of overalls by oilers and certain mechanics in the United States; with the exception, however, that the vest does not button up at the neck but is open like an ordinary vest and has no sleeves. It would probably be possible, after making a study of sizes and tastes, to construct a suit, consisting of trousers and blouse and made of material like jeans, which would find a market in Bolivia. It would be found less difficult to overcome the laborers' conservatism if the campaign were undertaken in connection with the mining companies and other large employers of labor.

The casinete trousers are well adapted for the market in the lower valleys, where the climate is mild and warm, and many of the Bolivian laborers in the altiplanicie are so poor that they can buy only the most inexpensive clothing. But most of the population of Bolivia dwell in the cold highlands and are employed in mining, which is remunerative. It is true, indeed, that these laborers are unable to patronize the tailors of La Paz and the other cities and that the women are not so successful in making woolen trousers as they are in making the cotton ones. Doubtless a market of considerable proportions could be developed in Bolivia for workingmen's trousers made of heavy cotton or shoddy and salable at a price within the reach of the better-paid mine laborers. Much intelligent and difficult campaigning would be necessary, but the potential demand is there.

Only a few years ago it was thought that the Bolivian woman of the lower class would never abandon her homespun shawl. To-day 90 per cent of these women are wearing shawls woven on European looms or made of baize imported from Manchester. They are more comfortable for the change and the time formerly spent in weaving on crude implements has been made available for the more profitable occupations at the mines or on the farms, for which they are well adapted.

The shirt worn by the Bolivian laborer is made of unbleached cotton, or gray goods. It has a yoke for the shoulders into which the collar is fitted. The sleeves and body of this shirt are made with much fullness, which is gathered into the yoke at the shoulders. In the better grades the bosom may be made of better material than the rest of the shirt, and for this purpose piqué or other materials are used. The buttons are the usual white-glass variety, and the shirt is never made in coat style. A little tip with a buttonhole is attached to the lower part of the bosom to button the shirt to the trousers and thus hold the bosom in place. A sample of such a shirt purchased in the market place of La Paz cost $0.75 for the cheaper variety and $1.20 for the better quality.

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THE PONCHO.

The poncho is the garment that characterizes the Andean Indian in both Peru and Bolivia. Even in the days of the Inca emperors the Quechua women had won fame as the weavers of fine woolen textiles. In those days the bride never dreamed of claiming her lord and master until she was able to present to him a poncho woven by herself from yarn that she had spun of wool from the sheep in her own herd. At times there was much competition for the hand of some bold young warrior, and the lasses of the tribe vied with one another in striving to produce a poncho worthy to cover the shoulders of the hero. Such ponchos were frequently woven from the soft fur of the vicuña or the vizcacha, a kind of furry hare found in the altiplanicie. Those that have been preserved in public museums and other collections of Andean curios bear witness to the skill and good taste of the Indian maidens that wove them.

The poncho is a garment well adapted to the uses of the Indian. It serves as a cape for the horseman and does not interfere with the freedom of movement required in riding. At night it serves as a blanket and formed practically the only bed of the Andean Indian. So general was its use that the Indian acquired the habit of sleeping in a squatting position huddled up in the folds of his poncho. In excavations made in the ruins at Tihuanacu in Bolivia, it has been found that the sleeping rooms were usually so small that a man could not stretch himself on the floor and of necessity the inmates slept squatting. Even to-day, many of the conical-shaped mud huts on the altiplanicie are so small as to make it impossible for the occupant to lie upon the floor. The poncho is the time-honored garb of the Andean Indian and there is no prospect of effecting any change for years to come.

The Quechua of three or four centuries ago knew nothing of mineral dyes, and the absence of vegetation of all kinds in the altiplanicie where he made his home made it impossible for him to secure the vegetable dyes common among other primitive peoples. As a result, the products of the crude looms of the Quechua were undyed. Color effects were obtained by the careful sorting of the different colored wools as they came from the sheep or the alpaca. Thus there was a great predominance of black and white combinations of these into checks and stripes. The vicuña, a timid, deer-like animal existing in the altiplanicie, is fawn-colored. Its wool is soft as the finest fur and the Indians prized garments woven from vicuña wool far above those woven from either the wool of the sheep or that of the alpaca. Vicuña ponchos were usually finished with a stripe or sometimes with three stripes about three-fourths of an inch wide on all four sides, which were several shades darker than the fawn color of the poncho. Another style of poncho darker than that just described is woven from the wool of the paco, a wool-bearing animal derived from the interbreeding of the alpaca and the vicuña. Its wool is almost as fine as that of the vicuña.

Threads of great strength and fineness could be produced from the vicuña and paco wool by even the primitive spinning methods of the Quechua. By carefully weaving these threads on their primitive looms these Indian women produced ponchos of wonderful texture and so tightly woven that they were practically waterproof.

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Of almost feather weight and so tight that it prevented the passing of the cold mountain blast, the vicuña poncho came to be much prized and still is much prized by the Quechua Indian and even by the white man in Bolivia. The better-grade vicuña poncho costs $25 to $50 in the highlands of Peru and Bolivia and can be obtained only on rare occasions. The poncho woven from the wool of the paco, which is a little coarser, sells in the market places of the cities of the altiplanicie for $10 to $20.

The poncho worn in Bolivia is a blanket about 2 meters (approximately 6½ feet) square. It is usually made of two pieces of cloth of equal length, sewed together, with an opening about 16 inches long left for the head. It has no pockets, no lining, no buttons or trimmings of any sort, except the stripes around the outer edges. To be acceptable the poncho must be of light weight, warm, and as nearly waterproof as possible. Rubber ponchos have been introduced with some success in the highlands of Peru but have not, it is believed, been introduced into Bolivia.

A few factory-made ponchos have been introduced into Bolivia from Europe. The outbreak of the war interfered with this market and the initial work must be done over. The number of men wearing ponchos in Bolivia is well up in the hundreds of thousands. Their purchasing power is not great, but there are individuals who are willing to pay what seem to be exorbitant prices for their ponchos. In the aggregate the demand for this garment is considerable. There are waterproofed materials, fawn-colored and of light weight, employed in the manufacture of raincoats and light overcoats, which would seem to be admirably adapted to the manufacture of ponchos. There is every reason to believe that a market for ponchos made of this kind of material could easily be developed in Bolivia.

OTHER GARMENTS.

In addition to the garments described, the Bolivian laborer has adopted a cheap undershirt, usually imported from Europe. The success of the American fleece-lined shirts in Bolivia has been noticeable, and the effort should be made to retain this market. The demand is for shirts of the cheapest variety and of the greatest apparent weight. Tight-woven goods made of tightly twisted yarns are not in demand. The fleece-lined goods and loosely woven shirts are those most desired. The drawers worn by these laborers are usually made by the women of the household from unbleached cotton material, the tucuyo so frequently mentioned in these pages. There is, however, a growing market for fleece-lined and cheap cotton drawers. The laborers seldom wear shoes and there is little demand for socks of any kind. The foot covering, which is designed solely as a protection to the sole of the wearer in his long hikes, consists of a piece of rawhide cut to fit the sole and bound by means of rawhide thongs over the instep. The hats worn by these men are frequently of a felt made from llama wool by the Indian women and shaped by pressing over a crude form. Cheap imported hats are being more and more worn in the cities.

The demand for overalls is limited to the mining regions. The overall with a bib is not so acceptable as that consisting of two pieces—trousers and blouse. The ordinary blue cotton material is

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preferred. Jobbers sell overalls in Bolivia at present for about 60 bolivianos ($24) per dozen. Several importers stated that if an overall to sell for 40 to 50 bolivianos ($16 to $20) per dozen could be introduced into Bolivia, it would find an excellent market.

CLOTHING MADE IN BOLIVIA.

Except the products of a small number of tailoring establishments in La Paz and several other cities, the clothing worn by the people of Bolivia is all made at home. The quartermaster department of the national Army operates the only establishment that can properly be called a clothing factory. In this establishment the uniforms worn by the Army and the rural police are manufactured. This establishment is making an experiment in the use of American khaki cloth, of which it has placed an order for a considerable amount. There are several unimportant shirt factories in Bolivia, but their aggregate output is only a few hundred dozen in a year. The type of shirts made in these factories is that worn in the United States many years ago, and the workmanship is of the crudest. The factories get some orders for shirts to be custom-made and to measure. The standard shirt made wholesales for about $12 per dozen and is inferior in quality, style, and workmanship to American shirts wholesaling for that price. These factories have the protection that comes from the isolated position of Bolivia and from the import duties collected on manufactured goods. That they do not make more rapid progress is due largely to lack of initiative. Their labor costs are low, and it would seem possible to develop their business considerably. It is not probable, however, that as managed at present they will ever become serious competitors of foreign shirt makers.

The number of men in Bolivia who wear modern woolen suits made by tailors is probably not greater than 150,000. These men live mostly in La Paz, Potosi, Sucre, Cochabamba, Oruro, and other cities. They are well dressed. Their clothes fit well and are made of materials imported from England, Italy, and other European markets. American woolens are only beginning to find a market in Bolivia. At present the importation of woolens is largely in the hands of Italian and British houses and this accounts for the fact that American imports are not well received and will not find it easy to enter the market, unless American exporters will make a concerted effort to place their goods before the buying public. It is not improbable that a campaign to introduce ready-to-wear clothing would present less difficulty and produce more valuable as well as more enduring results than would a campaign to introduce American suitings.

CASSIMERES.

The "cassimeres" in Bolivia are any kind of woolen suitings and include serges, worsteds, etc. I have even heard Bolivian tailors apply the name cassimere to cotton materials that are heavier than casinetes and softer in finish. The lighter dress goods of wool are not ordinarily spoken of as cassimeres in Bolivia, this name being specifically applied to the heavier suitings from which men's wearing apparel is made.

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The higher cost of woolen materials as compared with cotton restricts their use in Bolivia, and the demand for cassimeres is not so great as is that for casinetes. In 1914, the first year for which official statistics are available, the imports into Bolivia of cassimeres of all kinds reached a total of 99,306 pounds, valued at $62,616. During 1915 the imports of this class of goods were larger than in 1914, reaching a total of 110,744 pounds. The 1915 imports were, however, inferior in quality to those of 1914 and their aggregate value was only $52,441. The following table is a statement of the imports of woolen suitings, called cassimeres, into Bolivia during 1914 and 1915:

Countries of origin.	1914		1915	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
United Kingdom	46,194	$28,996	77,417	$36,879
Germany	27,027	17,207	3,146	1,391
Italy	9,983	6,339	23,298	10,453
Belgium	7,747	4,856	2,406	1,309
Spain	2,941	1,787	1,216	758
France	2,877	1,817	1,347	837
Argentina	1,543	983	483	280
Peru	685	435	734	216
United States	265	167	.....	.....
Chile	44	29	123	59
Brazil	.....	.....	47	30
Netherlands	.....	.....	527	229
Total	99,306	62,616	110,744	52,441

Imports from Italy have increased remarkably since the outbreak of the European war, and during 1917 the stocks of woolen suitings carried by importers in La Paz and other Bolivian cities were largely of Italian origin. The Italian mills produce a loose-texture woolen goods well-adapted to the Bolivian trade and it is put on the market in La Paz at prices so low that goods from other countries can not successfully compete with it. Although the United States had acquired a footing in this trade in 1914, it lost that footing in 1915, when goods disappeared from the statistics of imports. It is an error to offer to the Bolivian market woolen goods hard in finish or very closely woven. The type of goods most in demand is a loosely woven material in which the threads are not tightly twisted. The predominance of dark blues, dull grays, blacks, and browns is noticeable throughout Bolivia. Light grays are unsalable or salable only in limited quantities for novelty suits. In fact, the foreigner is at once struck upon his arrival in Bolivia with the general predominance of dull colors in the clothing worn by the better classes.

The proportion in which these woolen suitings were consumed in 1915 in the chief trade centers of Bolivia is shown by the following figures: La Paz, 60,537 pounds, valued at $26,127; Potosi, 27,829 pounds, valued at $14,035; Oruro, 16,023 pounds, valued at $7,616; all others, 6,355 pounds, valued at $4,663; total, 110,744 pounds, valued at $52,441.

OUTER GARMENTS.

The statistics published by the Bolivian Government do not show the amount or kind of wearing apparel imported for men earlier than 1915 and statistics for subsequent years are not yet available.

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It must be remembered, therefore, that the figures given are for a year of restricted buying, and that during a normal year the purchases are 50 to 100 per cent greater.

The following table shows the quantity and value of the imports into Bolivia in 1915 of men's outer garments, cotton and woolen, by principal countries of origin:

Countries of origin.	Pounds.	Value.	Countries of origin.	Pounds.	Value.
Brazil	1,702	$1,280	Argentina	221	$296
United Kingdom	988	1,983	Spain	190	551
France	701	552	Chile	99	302
United States	666	542	Italy	11	52
Germany	208	338			
Peru	238	144	Total	5,114	6,040

Most of these imports consisted of overcoats and raincoats for sale in La Paz and other centers and of diablo fuerte (corduroy) breeches and coats for sale in the mining regions. A very small amount consisted of overalls and similar special garments.

The important trade with Brazil is largely light cotton wearing apparel, suitable for use in the upper Amazon country bordering on the southwestern frontier of Brazil. Similarly the Argentine trade is largely with the far eastern section of Bolivia, reached by the great river systems and railways of Argentina. The following table shows the relative importance of six principal Bolivian cities in 1915 as importers of outer garments for men:

Cities.	Pounds.	Value.	Cities.	Pounds.	Value.
La Paz	2,355	$3,377	Sucre	13	$38
Potosi	694	1,022	All others	1,748	1,331
Cochabamba	152	167			
Tarija	97	63	Total	5,114	6,040
Oruro	55	42			

SUITS AND OVERCOATS.

Probably not more than 20 per cent of the male population of Bolivia wear clothing similar to that manufactured by the clothing industry of the United States. The market for clothing therefore deals only with a population of average purchasing power and consisting of approximately 200,000 individuals, of rather more than average culture. The fact that the laboring population is almost a negligible factor in the Bolivian market for clothing makes of the market one in which clothing of the better grades predominates. The demand for cutaway and frock coats is proportionately strong in Bolivia, while there is practically no demand for the coarser, low-priced suits for the laborer.

The Spanish word cassimir in Bolivia has come to be used for any kind of woolen suitings. Importers of such materials speak indifferently of serges and worsteds as cassimires. The demand in sack suits is for a loosely woven goods with a soft hairy finish. Hard finishes are not popular. At present the Italian mills are producing suitings that are winning great popularity in Bolivia because of their quality and low prices.

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The weather in Bolivian cities is never excessively warm, and the nights are at all seasons cool. During the winter months, from June until November, the weather is much like the fall weather in Virginia. There is, consequently, no demand at all for such summer clothing as palm beach and others worn in the summer in the United States. There is practically no demand for two-piece suits, although some tailors use material for vests different from that of the coat and trousers, and thus there may be said to exist a small demand for two-piece suits with fancy vests.

In the matter of colors tastes are very pronounced in Bolivia. There is no demand at all for light or showy colors in men's clothing. Blues, dark grays, and browns predominate in the order mentioned and much more black is worn than in the United States. Glaring colors are out of harmony with the light and are never worn even by the lower classes. The one exception to this rule is the chola woman, who wears light colors almost exclusively.

The styles are those of London and Paris. The manufacturers of suitings who send to the Bolivian market keep the tailors supplied with fashion plates and style books. The frock and cutaway coats worn in La Paz are close copies in materials and style of those to be seen on well-dressed men abroad. The fact that the Bolivian winter comes much earlier than that of the United States leads to the retarding of the styles. Most manufacturers are not willing to reveal their styles before the opening of the season, and as the Bolivian winter begins in June, when the winter season is well over in the United States, the Bolivian market is supplied largely from goods unsold in the producing market after the seasonal openings. The difference in season is, however, somewhat counterbalanced by the distance of Bolivia from the producing centers and the consequent delay in the receipt of shipments after goods have been ordered. Several dealers in La Paz showed me goods that they had purchased in job lots. These were leftovers from the European season. The dealers had found them quite unsalable in Bolivia, because they were already out of style, so fully do Bolivians keep posted as to fashion movements and changes.

There is no demand in Bolivia for the very heavy woolen clothing worn in northern climates. The thermometer rarely registers a temperature below zero, and usually during the day it is not uncomfortably cold in the sun. The demand is for medium-weight clothing that looks warm. The suitings that sell best are loosely woven and finished with considerable nap.

There has never been made a serious effort to sell factory-made clothing for men in Bolivia. Except a few overcoats kept in stock by the haberdashers and a few suits imported by parcel post from foreign mail-order houses, no factory-made clothing is worn in Bolivia. Probably any effort to introduce factory-made clothing would arouse considerable opposition from the local tailors, who would fear the competition. At first an effort would be made to create the impression that the ready-made goods are inferior in workmanship, style, fit, and materials. Much intelligent and persistent campaigning would be necessary to overcome this opposition.

Fancy vests are worn in Bolivia with frock and cutaway coats and to a limited extent with sack suits. It is not unusual in the custom-

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made suits for the coat, trousers, and vest to be of different materials. In introducing ready-made clothing there would probably be found to exist a small demand for such suits, or for the ordinary two-piece suit with a fancy vest.

Some success has been achieved in the introduction of ready-made overcoats. These come mostly from England or France. By proper advertising and the introduction of up-to-date selling methods, a considerable market for overcoats and light topcoats could be developed. Such coats are at present made by the local tailors to measure, and cost $20 upward. There is a demand also for waterproof coats but not for rubber coats. The cravenette coat, lined with a warm flannel or other similar material, would no doubt be a very serviceable garment in La Paz and other Bolivian cities, during the season when the cold rains fall. These rains are not heavy enough to create a demand for rubber coats, but they do make the need of a waterproofed garment felt, and a coat combining the waterproof feature with the weight required because of the cold, would undoubtedly prove acceptable.

The market for bathrobes is very limited. There is, however a well-developed market for smoking and lounging jackets of warm materials.

So little effort has been made to introduce ready-made clothing into Bolivia that it is not possible to give a complete list of existing firms that would take an interest in such an effort. Several firms are importing ready-made overcoats, raincoats, children's clothing, and complete lines of shirts, underwear, neckwear, socks, etc. No firm imports men's clothing in quantities. Neither the extent of the field nor its promise can be more than surmised at present. Sufficient has already been written to show that a market of respectable proportions can probably be developed, that it will require serious and intelligent effort to develop it, and that such an effort may be undertaken with a fair prospect of success.

The well-dressed Bolivian is accustomed to paying a rather high price for suits made by his tailor. These prices are seldom lower than $30 even for sack suits. Young men's ready-made clothing that could be retailed in Bolivia for $20 upward and suits for men that could be retailed at $25 upward would probably be the types most easily introduced at first. As the trade develops and the laboring classes learn that suits can be placed within their reach, a demand will, no doubt, develop for the very low-priced suits.

LIVERIES, UNIFORMS, ETC.—TARIFF RATES.

The demand for liveries, uniforms, and other special clothing is small. Tastes are so variable that it would not be practical to manufacture clothing of this sort for sale in Bolivia. The uniforms worn by the Army and the national and local police are all manufactured locally. Liveries for coachmen are so little used that they are always made to order. Sometimes measurements are sent to Paris by the wealthiest families and the liveries worn by their servants are made abroad and imported direct through the parcel post. This also is a business that an energetic local dealer might find it possible to obtain. One or two importers stated that they had acted as agents in importing uniforms made in this manner.

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Several of the more important colleges at La Paz and other similar centers oblige their students to purchase uniforms. These are not worn continually and the demand is not for a considerable quantity. It might be possible for a firm doing business at La Paz to obtain orders for uniforms of this sort. This would, however, require considerable knowledge of local conditions. The clergy wear cassocks at all times, and there is a market for cassocks of both the better and poorer qualities. The present supply of these garments comes from France and Spain or is made locally. It would probably be worth the while of any clothing manufacturer intending to enter the South American market to make a study of the cassocks and other garments, collars, stocks, etc., worn by the Catholic clergy. These are the same in Bolivia as elsewhere, and the fact that styles in this class of garments are unchanging would seem to make the field an easy one to enter and the demand not difficult to satisfy.

As is the case with shirts, neither the commercial nor the consular invoice is accepted as a basis for the collection of ad valorem import taxes in Bolivia. The tariff law, adopted several years ago, states the price at which various articles shall be appraised both for assessment of important duties and for statistical purposes. In many instances these prices are lower than the present prevailing prices but they were just at the time of their adoption and work no hardship on the importer in normal times. The following is a list of the men's and youths' clothing mentioned in the Bolivian tariff law, together with the official valuation of each article and the rate at at which it is taxed. The rates given should in each case be increased by 15 per cent to cover a surtax:

Articles.	Units.	Official valuations.		Rate of duty.
		Bolivianos.	*Dollars.*	*Per cent.*
Dressing gowns, bathrobes, etc., for men: [a]				
Cotton, padded or not	Each	12.00	4.80	40
Wool, with cotton admixture or not	do	30.00	12.00	40
Ready-made clothing, sewed articles, n. e. s., for men, women, youths, or children.	(b)	(b)	(b)	40
Vests: [c]				
Cloth, cassimere, or other woolen goods, with or without admixture of cotton, plain, worked, or printed.	Dozen	60.00	24.00	40
Velvet or silk, pure or mixed	do	96.00	38.40	40
Cotton or linen, all kinds	do	30.00	12.00	40
Evening coats, cloth or cassimere	Each	60.00	24.00	40
Frock coats and jackets:				
Wool, with or without admixture	do	40.00	16.00	40
Cotton or linen fabric	do	10.00	4.00	40
Trousers: [d]				
Cotton or linen	Dozen	18.00	7.20	40
Cloth, cassimere, or other similar woolen material	do	120.00	48.00	40
Woolen with cotton admixture	do	72.00	28.80	40
Coarse cloth (baize)	do	30.00	12.00	40
Cassocks for the clergy	(b)	(b)	(b)	40
Suits of two and three pieces for children:				
Cassimere, cloth, or wool, with or without admixture—				
With knee pants	Each	8.00	3.20	40
With long trousers	do	12.00	4.80	40
Knitted wool, with or without admixture	do	6.00	2.40	40
Knitted cotton	do	4.00	1.60	40
Linen brin, with or without admixture, or of cotton fabric	do	3.00	1.20	40
Overcoats and wraps of all kinds	(b)	(b)	(b)	40

[a] The valuation of these articles with silk linings is 50 per cent higher.
[b] Ad valorem.
[c] Knit vests are valued according to the textiles of which they are made.
[d] Trousers not exceeding 35 centimeters in width at the waist shall be appraised with a reduction of 50 per cent.

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OTHER GARMENTS.

Complete statistics of the underwear imported into Bolivia are not available, underwear being included in the statistics of various kinds of textiles, knit goods, etc. The following table, however, will give an idea of the quantity of imports into Bolivia in 1915 of collars, shirts, and similar articles for men's wear, not included in the preceding table, by principal countries of origin:

Countries of origin.	Pounds.	Value.	Countries of origin.	Pounds.	Value.
Germany	4,299	$2,729	Peru	386	$246
Brazil	1,528	1,886	Chile	154	180
Argentina	1,433	1,033	Spain	110	383
United States	1,391	822	France	84	90
Belgium	868	564			
Netherlands	681	391	Total	11,419	9,028
United Kingdom	485	704			

Statistics for years later than 1915 will doubtless show a great gain for American goods. Indeed, the American collar is finding ready acceptance in Bolivia, and the American shirt will find a similar acceptance as soon as the manufacturers adapt their color patterns to the tastes of the Bolivian market, where striking stripes and bright colors are not acceptable. Conservative color patterns and modest stripes are wanted. The taste is for very narrow stripes and not for wide bands of contrasting colors.

The following table will show the relative importance in 1915 of the market for collars, shirts, and similar articles for men's wear in the six principal Bolivian cities:

Cities.	Pounds.	Value.	Cities.	Pounds.	Value.
La Paz	4,030	$3,060	Cochabamba	452	$181
Oruro	1,993	1,509	All others	2,319	1,952
Potosi	1,305	1,352			
Tarija	855	592	Total	11,419	9,028
Sucre	465	382			

SHIRTS.

The well-dressed Bolivian has a decided aversion for striking color effects in his clothing. The popular shirt in Bolivia is made of a closely woven zephyr, with a white ground through which run very narrow blue or black stripes. The bosom may be pleated or not, the shirt may be coat-cut or not, but it must have no red stripes, no green, no lavender, or other striking color, and even the black or blue stripes must not be wide, though they may be numerous and grouped. One dealer took from his stock some American shirts of a good grade of percale that he had received some time before. They had a white ground, though which ran at intervals of about 1 inch, bands of black, blue, green, lavender, etc. These bands were about three-eighths of an inch wide and had a glossy finish. The merchant stated that it would be impossible to sell these shirts in La Paz and extremely difficult to work them off in other parts of Bolivia. He then showed

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a shirt of the same type and quality as those just described but with a very thin blue stripe, consisting of three or four threads only, and placed in groups of six or eight stripes, separated one group from the other by a white band an inch wide. These are good sellers, but a still better seller was a shirt in which the very narrow blue and white stripes alternated and gave to the shirt a diffused blue color, the stripes being unnoticed as such. American shirts of the desired colors are popular in Bolivia and have made for themselves an enviable position in this market. Sufficient attention has not, however, been given to the colors employed, and unless this is attended to the European shirt will become a serious rival when trade conditions again become favorable to it. One dealer stated that the American shirt was better received than any other in Bolivia, but he attributed this to the superior selling methods (advertising, etc.) employed by the American manufacturer rather than to any superiority in the shirt itself. There is no doubt that the American shirt has been intelligently introduced into Bolivia and that at present it has the advantage of abnormal conditions that favor trade with the United States rather than with Europe. It is still problematical, however, whether the American shirt, when dependent upon its intrinsic excellence, upon quality of material, style, and workmanship, and especially upon price, will be able to hold its own in competition with the cheaper shirts from England and other European countries. There appears to be no reason, however, why it should not meet competition successfully, if American manufacturers will apply themselves to the problem of color designs suitable to the Bolivian market.

There is at present practically no demand in Bolivia for the very cheap grades of shirts. The Bolivian Indian laborer wears homemade shirts and is not a customer of the dealer in imported shirts. His "dress-up" shirt is apt to be an elaborate affair, the body of which is made of unbleached cotton goods, with cuffs and bosom of piqué or some other ornamental material. Shirt bosoms, in the bolt, were imported in some quantity from Europe, prior to the war. The bosoms imported were of stiff cotton material, frequently with narrow blue or other colored stripe, or large white checks set off with similar fine stripes. The supply of such bosoms is about exhausted now and the pleated bosom is becoming fashionable in this type of shirt.

There is little demand for high-priced shirts, all-linen, silk, etc. The demand is for a medium-priced shirt, which can be sold in Bolivia for about $20 to $23 per dozen. Such a shirt should not cost, f. o. b. the American port of shipment, more than $12 to $15 per dozen, and in normal times the strongest demand would probably be for shirts at prices lower than these.

The negligee type of shirt is preferred. Probably no city outside of the Andean highlands of Peru and Bolivia has laundry conditions so bad as those found at La Paz and other Bolivian cities. There is no steam laundry in operation in Bolivia. The only fuel available in the country is sheep and llama dung, small twigs from a shrub that grows in the altiplanicie, and a kind of moss. All these are scarce and the demand for them at the mines is so strong that they can be obtained only at very high prices. All clothes are washed in cold water, generally in the icy water of some mountain

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creek. Tubs, washboards, and washing machines are unknown. The dirt is literally beaten out of the shirt or other garment between two stones, and fancy shirt fronts will not long withstand the treatment they receive at the hands of the Bolivian washerwoman. The shirt with soft bosom and soft double cuffs is therefore the shirt most popular in Bolivia. Business men and professional men wear stiff-bosomed shirts only when dressed for some formal gathering.

There is a small demand in La Paz and especially in the mining districts for a gray or khaki woolen shirt and for a cotton khaki shirt. This shirt is made with single soft cuffs and a fairly broad turndown soft collar.

Coat-cut shirts were unknown in Bolivia until the advent of the American shirt. They have been introduced at a time when Bolivia was practically cut off from the European market and thus have to a certain extent been forced upon the trade. The two or three small establishments that make shirts in quantities in La Paz have not yet adopted the coat shirt in their standard designs, and while two of these establishment had had orders for coat-cut shirts, the proprietor of the third stated that not one of his clients had requested a change from the old type of closed-front shirt with a little tip for buttoning the shirt to the drawers. Among the best dealers the style and finish of the American coat-cut shirt are much admired, and several of these stated that their best clients preferred the coat-cut style to any other. In the stock carried by dealers whose goods are consumed by the poorer classes, the closed front with a collar band closing with a button at the back was most usual. Practically all the homemade shirts offered for sale in the market places are of this type.

Several dealers suggested that a negligee shirt with a piqué front, double soft piqué cuffs, and two detachable piqué collars, to sell for $2 to $3 in Bolivia, would find a good demand. Such a shirt is frequently made in the local factories and was formerly imported from Europe. To be acceptable to the Bolivian importer such a shirt should not cost more, f. o. b. American port, than $10 to $12 per dozen. Shirts with soft fronts, soft double cuffs, and collars to match would also be acceptable in Bolivia at about the same prices.

Starch-bosom shirts are not worn much in Bolivia for reasons already given. When they are worn, the plain bosom is preferred to the pleated bosom. Dealers find it necessary, however, to have both types in stock, and several stated that their sales of the two were about equal in volume. There is a limited demand for a high-grade linen dress shirt with plain or pleated bosom, or with a soft silk pleated front. Dress shirts for Bolivia should be made with half cuffs attached, so that they may be worn with or without detachable cuffs. They should be provided with the straps that button over the suspenders.

A majority of dealers in La Paz and elsewhere are convinced that the American shirt has no rival in respect to finish, style, fit, or workmanship. European shirtings are more popular in Bolivia than are American shirtings, and the European shirts are better adapted in color to the tastes of the Bolivian. The American shirt has the disadvantage of having become popular at a time of universal high prices and at a time when the European shirt was not being

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supplied in Bolivia. This has led to the comparison between the actual price paid for the American shirt and the pre-war price of the European shirt. When prices return to a normal level and European competition is renewed, the American manufacturer will find it necessary to revise his price lists if he is to retain the footing he has acquired in Bolivia.

The Bolivian public is accustomed to metric sizes in shirts and collars, and American sizes are not intelligible to the average customer. Several dealers suggested that the popularity of American shirts could be increased by marking them with the metric sizes. In Bolivia it is believed that the wearing of garments which fit snugly around the neck is injurious to health because of the difficulty of breathing in the rare atmosphere found at such high altitudes as those of most Bolivian cities. There is no demand for snug-fitting shirt collars, and quarter sizes are practically unknown. In view of the small stock carried by many of the dealers, it is an advantage not to have to carry a great assortment of sizes. The sizes most used are 14, 14½, 15, 15½, and 16. An order for five dozen shirts would probably be distributed as follows: ½ dozen 13, ½ dozen 13½, 1 dozen 14, 1 dozen 14½, 1 dozen 15, ½ dozen 15½, and ½ dozen 16.

It is believed that a market for a shirt to retail in Bolivia for $1 or slightly more could be developed and that the demand for this type of shirt would develop into considerable proportions. To satisfy this demand, the shirt should be of some well-finished cotton material, not too strikingly marked with checks or stripes or other color designs, but such a shirt as would appeal to the tastes of the Bolivian Indian and laborer. The elaborate fronts of unbleached muslin that they put into their shirts are evidence that a better article placed within their reach would find immediate acceptance. It would certainly be worth the while of some manufacturer of this type of shirt to make an effort to introduce his goods into Bolivia. The market will be for a moderate-priced shirt, made of durable material and of such appearance as will satisfy the tastes of a man of little education.

Neither the commercial nor the consular invoice is accepted by the Bolivian customs authorities as the basis for the appraisal of shirts. A schedule of prices adopted some years ago is still in use by the appraisers, and all import taxes are based on this schedule. At present there is a tendency to modify the customs system of Bolivia, and probably in the new regulations more attention will be paid to the prices given in consular invoices. Until, however, the Bolivian consuls abroad are in a position to certify the correctness of the prices appearing in their invoices, the present system will probably continue. In so far as the prices are for the most part equitable, no hardship results to either the importer or the manufacturer or exporter under the present system. In the following table are shown the prices at which various classes of shirts are appraised and the rate of duty assessed against each class. In addition to the import taxes stated in this table, all dutiable imports are subject to a general surtax of 15 per cent of the duties, which should, in each case, be added to the duties shown. There are also various minor contributions. Goods entering La Paz pay a small contribution for a fund being raised for the construction of the cathedral, and other cities are raising funds in a similar manner for like projects. Moreover,

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there are local octroi taxes in Bolivia and these are in addition to the national import tax. On the whole, however, the average cost of import taxes is not extreme.

Classes of shirts.[a]	Units.	Official valuations.		Rate of duty.
		Bolivianos.	*Dollars.*	*Per cent.*
Cotton:				
White or colored, with or without collars or cuffs attached	Dozen	20.00	8.00	40
Striped or checked (called Italian)	Kilo [b]	2.00	.80	40
Linen front, plain, figured, or embroidered, with or without linen collars or cuffs attached	Dozen	30.00	12.00	40
Linen front of more than 50 threads	do	55.00	22.00	40
Linen, plain or embroidered, white or colored, with or without collars or cuffs attached:				
Up to 50 threads warp and woof in the front	do	84.00	33.60	40
More than 50 threads in the front	do	96.00	38.40	40
Wool:				
Knit or pure woolen flannel	do	36.00	14.40	40
With silk embroidered front	do	48.00	19.20	40
Knit or flannel, with admixture of cotton, and shirts of mixed or pure flock wool	do	24.00	9.60	40
With silk embroidered front	do	30.00	12.00	40
Silk shirts (including inner packing)	Kilo	70.00	28.00	40
Silk with admixture of cotton (including packing)	do	60.00	24.00	40
Cotton, flannel, or knit, with or without border	Dozen	12.00	4.80	40

[a] Shirts with silk stripes are appraised with a 50 per cent higher valuation. Shirts appraised per dozen are subject to an increase of 15 per cent over the usual valuation, when they have embroidered fronts.
[b] Gross.

There are at La Paz three establishments engaged in the manufacture of shirts. The goods that they turn out are for the most part of the cheapest kind. The style and finish are poor and the materials employed inferior. Not a few Bolivians wear custom-made shirts that are the product of these small factories and in the making of these there is more effort at high-grade workmanship and finish. The combined output of these three factories, including custom work, is probably less than 1,000 dozen shirts in a year.

The proprietor of one of these factories keeps an elaborate cost of production account, which showed that the cost of a dozen shirts in his factory was 8.70 bolivianos (about $3.50) for labor and from 15 bolivianos (about $6) up for materials. This factory had purchased several pieces of damaged cotton material, which it was laundering and making up into shirts. The style of shirt produced in this factory is most inferior, the workmanship is poor, and the finish crude. The factory seems to be making no serious effort to increase its output, does practically no advertising, has no ambition to introduce new or better styles of cut or material, and can not be considered a serious rival to imported shirts manufactured in modern factories with up-to-date methods. The low labor cost in Bolivia suggests the practicability of manufacturing shirts at La Paz for the local trade, especially in the cheaper grades.

COLLARS AND CUFFS.

Sorroche, a form of illness brought on by atmospheric conditions at extreme altitudes, manifests itself most frequently in its early stages as a difficulty of breathing. Men who have lived many years in La Paz or other Bolivian cities are subject to sorroche and as a precaution wear low collars and loosely fitting shirts. The collar most frequently worn is a double or turndown collar, about 1½ inches, never more than 2 inches high. Several years ago the Austrian

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collar enjoyed practically a clear field in Bolivia. So great were the stocks of Austrian collars on hand at La Paz at the outbreak of the European war that even as late as June, 1917, there were still some left in the retail stores. To-day, however, the American collar is preferred for both style and finish, and it sells at prices that will enable it to compete with the European collar even in normal times. Several dealers complained that the American collar is too thick, stating that the Bolivian market prefers a collar made of thinner material and more flexible. But the success with which American collars are meeting would seem to indicate that the Bolivian client is rapidly accustoming himself to the American style of collar.

The double collar made of thin flexible material does not permit as much space for the tie band. When the American collar, with its ample space for tie band, returns from the Bolivian washwoman it has been pressed closely together and it is difficult to adjust the tie band. The American collars introduced into Bolivia are of the type that have a straight back, whereas the collars to which the market is accustomed have a crescent-shaped space cut out of the center of the collar, which facilitates buttoning and permits the collar button to pass freely. Collars that come from the washwoman flattened out as they do in Bolivia, are liable to press against a protruding button and cause discomfort to the wearer. There is no doubt as to the superiority in appearance of the American collar, but taking into account the laundry difficulties existing in Bolivia, one can sympathize with the complaint. This is one of those apparently small things that are at times of paramount importance in permanently winning a market.

In Bolivia, especially among the laboring classes, the demand is for a shiny collar. One of the more important hand laundries in La Paz makes the announcement that collars laundered there come out "shining like a mirror," and this announcement is the chief claim of that laundry to the good will of its clients. The dull-finished American collar makes but an indifferent appeal to a client who wants his collar to shine like a mirror. The better trade is learning to admire the elegance of finish that characterizes the American collar, but there is still a considerable demand in La Paz and other Bolivian cities for a collar with a shine.

Formerly there was a considerable demand in Bolivia for rubber collars. One stock of such collars was seen that had been left on the hands of the importer, who said that the market for rubber collars no longer exists. It was suggested, however, by several important importers that a market for a well-made paper collar could easily be developed. Such a collar would have to sell for a price not greater than that of laundering the linen collar, which is 10 to 20 centavos (4 to 8 cents).

There is a considerable demand for soft collars to match the shirt or for soft collars made of fancy white materials. There is no demand for soft collars made of colored materials. Such collars should be of cotton, and to develop the largest demand they must sell at moderate prices. The complaint made against such collars coming from the United States at present is that they are too expensive for the Bolivian market.

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Collar sizes are always expressed metrically in Bolivia, and the American sizes are not well understood. To endeavor to change this condition would be uselessly to antagonize the dealers and their clients and would result in no benefit of practical importance. The sizes most usual are 34 to 42 centimeters; there is a very small demand for larger or smaller collars.

There is a limited demand for flat lay-down collars for small boys of six to ten years. These are worn over suits made with a coat or blouse that buttons up at the throat. They should be of plain white linen, stiff, and wide. Those examined in the stores were 2 to 4 inches wide. These collars are made with a soft neckband, which buttons to the shirt, while the stiff collar fits over the collar of the coat or blouse.

As a result of the popularity of negligee or seminegligee shirts with double or single cuffs attached, there is only a moderate demand for separate cuffs in Bolivia. There is no demand at all for other than plain white cuffs. These should be made with a strap in the center for buttoning to the wristband or half-cuff of the shirt, and provided with holes for cuff buttons or links at both ends, making possible the reversing of the cuffs when one end is soiled. Cuffs of Swiss or Spanish manufacture are well known in the market. No determined effort has been made to introduce American cuffs, which would, no doubt, find acceptance as have American collars. The market is small and would not warrant any considerable expense to introduce new goods.

The cuffs most popular are those with an exterior of linen and an interior of cotton. Sizes are expressed metrically, and those most in demand range from 25 to 28.

The following figures show the valuation placed on various classes of collars and cuffs in the Bolivian customs regulations and the rate (not including the 15 per cent surtax, previously mentioned) at which the import duty is assessed: Paper collars and cuffs, with or without cotton fabric, valued at 6 bolivianos per kilo ($1.10 per pound), pay an import duty of 30 per cent of this valuation; cotton collars and cuffs, valued uniformly at 6 bolivianos per kilo, pay an import duty of 40 per cent of this valuation; linen collars and cuffs, with or without admixture of cotton, valued at 8 bolivianos per kilo ($1.45 per pound), pay an import tax of 40 per cent of this valuation; rubber or composition collars and cuffs, valued at 8 bolivianos per kilo, pay an import tax of 30 per cent of this valuation.

NECKWEAR.

The official statistics of imports of neckwear were first published for the years 1914 and 1915. Prior to that period these statistics were included in the statements of imports of the various classes of textiles to which the neckwear belonged and statistics for years later than 1915 had not yet been published in August, 1917, when this report was being prepared. During 1914 the volume of these imports was considerably greater than during 1915, owing, no doubt, to the exhausting of supplies held in the customs warehouses under bond and the cutting off of the usual source of supply in Europe. Before the end of 1916, the Bolivian importers had made connections with other sources of supply, and probably the imports of neckwear for 1917 have been considerably greater than those recorded for either

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1914 or 1915. The tendency of this trade is to increase, in both volume and value. The fact that the average value of the ties imported is only a little over $3 per pound, whereas the official valuation of silk ties is approximately $10 per pound, shows that the great majority of the ties imported were of the cheaper cotton or silk-mixture class. Indeed, it was unusual in 1917 to find any silk ties among the stocks on hand with the dealers.

The following table shows the quantity and value of the neckwear imported into Bolivia in 1914 and 1915, by principal countries of origin:

Countries of origin.	1914		1915	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Germany	765	$3,192	51	$393
Italy	527	1,966	639	1,553
United Kingdom	377	1,465	242	713
France	344	1,439	106	295
Spain	286	350	34	110
United States	245	980	192	861
Belgium	150	973	9	39
Brazil	53	304	29	78
Argentina	46	144	46	191
Chile	22	35	35	220
Peru	.....	.....	31	72
Denmark	.....	.....	22	100
Japan	.....	.....	9	40
Total	2,815	10,848	1,445	4,665

The cheapest ties supplied in large numbers were those supplied from Italy, and the only country whose trade increased in quantity in 1915 was also Italy. The Italian ties are cotton, or cotton with a very slight admixture of silk. They are imported in bulk, several gross in a case, with no wrapping or other packing, and thus pay the lowest import duties. Neckwear from the United States gives good results. It satisfies the market in style and quality and price, but it is likely to be too well packed. Ties in individual containers, ties put up three and six to the cardboard container, etc. make an excellent appearance everywhere but in the customhouse, where the weight including inner packing is the basis of calculation, and to every one but the importer, who has to pay the import duty. It has been suggested that neckwear containers be imported separately, and that the ties be placed in them by the Bolivian importer. The official valuation of such cardboard containers would be not more than $1 per pound, and considerably less for plain boxes, and the rate of duty would be only 30 per cent, whereas imported together with the ties, they are valued at much more and pay the higher rate of import duty.

The following table shows quantity and value of the neckwear imported for different cities during 1915:

Cities.	Pounds.	Value.	Cities.	Pounds.	Value.
La Paz	968	$2,717	Sucre	2	$3
Cochabamba	209	766	Other	46	162
Potosi	159	752	Total	1,445	4,665
Tarija	46	186			
Oruro	15	79			

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In discussing neckwear for the Bolivian market the remarks which have already been made concerning the tastes of the Bolivian for subdued colors may well be repeated with emphasis. The highly ornamental tie, with flowers and other complicated designs woven into the material, is not in demand in this market. Knitted ties are made to some extent in the convent schools. They are not popular and are not carried in stock by the best retail stores. The tubular woven tie has not been energetically introduced.

To be acceptable in the Bolivian market the tie must be low-priced, retailing in La Paz for 1,50 to 3 bolivianos ($0.60 to $1.20). A tie that sells in La Paz for 1.50 bolivianos should not cost f. o. b. the American port of shipment more than $2 to $3 per dozen.

Light-colored neckwear is never in demand in Bolivia. The demand is rather for ties of a single color, dark blue, gray, etc., or a tie with a very fine stripe. Ties made of material consisting of a blue or black ground with white dots find a ready sale. Bow ties, both white and in colors, of silk or cotton, selling at a moderate price find a good market in La Paz. Ready-tied black bows for wearing with tuxedo or evening coat and also ready-tied white ties for evening wear are required by the market.

There is very little demand for silk mufflers. These are, however, carried in stock by dealers at La Paz. There is a strong demand for a tubular knit woolen muffler. This should be from 4 to 6 feet in length and about 6 inches wide. Such mufflers are retailed at La Paz for 6 bolivianos ($2.40) upward. They are usually gray or blue. They are loosely knit, woolly, and soft. The aim in manufacturing this garment should be to produce an article of little weight, soft to the touch, and warm. Practically every man in the altiplanicie wears some kind of muffler in the late evening or at night when obliged to be out of doors. It is commonly believed that to breathe the cold air of the highlands exposes one to pneumonia, and Bolivians like to have their necks well wrapped up and their mouths covered when they are exposed to the cold. Both the silk and cotton mixture dress mufflers and the warm wool mufflers seen in La Paz were from England.

The import duties are based upon an arbitrary valuation per kilo, legal weight (including inner packing). Cotton ties of all forms and qualities are valued for tariff purposes at 8 bolivianos (about $3.20) per kilo, and pay an import tax of 40 per cent of this official valuation. Wool ties, with or without an admixture of cotton, are valued at 12 bolivianos ($4.80) per kilo, and pay an import tax of 40 per cent. Linen ties, with or without inferior admixture, are valued at 8 bolivianos, and pay an import tax of 40 per cent of this valuation. Silk ties, lined, with or without admixture, are valued at 20 bolivianos ($8) per kilo, and pay an import tax of 40 per cent. Silk ties, unlined, with no admixture, are valued at 60 bolivianos ($24) per kilo, and pay 40 per cent. Silk ties, unlined, with inferior admixture, are valued at 25 bolivianos ($10) per kilo, and pay an import tax of 40 per cent. All the rates given are exclusive of the 15 per cent surtax.

It will be noted that all classes of ties pay an import tax on the weight, including inner packing. Ties packed in individual cardboard boxes or in packing in which much cardboard and paper have been used will pay a correspondingly higher import duty in

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Bolivia. Most of the importers prefer to have their ties arrive in bulk, unwrapped, and without cardboard containers of any kind. This is particularly true of the cheaper varieties. The import duty on pure-silk ties is almost prohibitive, and the ties in stock in La Paz are largely cotton or silk mixtures.

UNDERWEAR.

The union suit for men has not been introduced in Bolivia and, except on the part of a few individuals who import their own underwear direct, there is no demand for this type of garment. There is no apparent reason for the failure of the union suit except the fact that no effort has been made by a local dealer to introduce it. Probably the excellence of this type of underwear will be appreciated in Bolivia as soon as the men of that country have accustomed themselves to its use. The failure to introduce the union suit is an evidence of the dependence of the foreign goods upon the local dealer. Commercial travelers who make selling trips through a foreign country, remaining only long enough in a place to show their samples and conclude their sales, make little headway in introducing new ideas or new goods. When such a traveler has a new thing that he desires introduced he should conduct an intensive publicity campaign for his article. He should have a sufficient stock with him to permit him to make trial sales to such customers as may be acquired. These sales must be made through some wide-awake and ambitious local dealer, whom it is desired to interest in the goods. Such a campaign, intelligently conducted for several weeks, will create a demand for almost any desirable commodity. Once the demand is created, it will be easy to make a first sale to the local dealer through whom the salesman has been working. If this local dealer is given a monopoly at first in handling the article he can be made to appreciate the advantages of an effort to market this article in preference to other similar articles sold by his competitors. Commercial travelers who visit a distant market like Bolivia too frequently commit the error of not remaining long enough to develop fully the demand for their goods. This is particularly true of the commercial traveler who desires to introduce a new supply, a new firm, or a new line. Money spent on the first visit, if spent intelligently, will make future visits less difficult and will tend to create permanent commercial relations, which are far more valuable than the transitory sales often made in foreign markets.

There is little demand for the very lightweight fabric or net underwear, but there is a firm demand, at practically all seasons, for all other weights. The ordinary fleece-lined underwear finds considerable sale among the Indians and laboring classes. Such underwear should be loosely woven, so as to combine the greatest thickness with the least weight. Fleece-lined goods that can be sold at wholesale in La Paz for 50 bolivianos (about $20) per dozen suits are said by most dealers to be acceptable. The demand for shirts is said to be somewhat greater than the demand for suits or drawers. There is also a demand for gray underwear of a wool-cotton mixture, which can be sold at wholesale in La Paz for about 70 bolivianos ($28) per dozen suits. Among the better trade the

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demand is for a lightweight, gray woolen garment. Prior to the war these were imported from Europe at prices that made it possible to retail the garments at 5 bolivianos ($2). At present prices are much higher, and dealers are experiencing some difficulty in obtaining stocks from abroad. The demand is especially strong for the heavy cotton and cheaper woolen garments.

At La Paz and a few other centers there is a small demand for the athletic type of underwear. Knee drawers and sleeveless shirts are not much worn in a country where the evenings are invariably cold. There is, however, a growing taste for such outdoor games as tennis, golf, and football, and the demand for the athletic type of underwear, if intelligently catered to, will probably grow.

In the cheaper cotton underwear there is a demand for stripes. As has been said, the taste of the Bolivian is much set against striking colors in his outer garments. In the case of underwear this condition is reversed, and in examining the stocks on hand in the retail and wholesale houses of La Paz one is at once impressed with the variety and quantity of striped and solid-color garments that are said to be good sellers. In the cheaper cotton goods stripes may be horizontal, but in the better grades horizontal stripes are not acceptable. In these goods the stripes must run vertically in the body of the garment and lengthwise in the sleeves of the shirts. In solid colors blues, purples, greens, etc., peppered with golden brown or silvery gray, are popular.

Silk underwear is worn by only a few of the very well to do. The silk underwear brought into Bolivia is imported largely by the consumer through the parcel post, orders being based on catalogues. The chance for the development of this trade is not great because of the high import duty on silks of all kinds.

The establishment of a knitting works at La Paz has been talked of, but no practical steps have been taken in this direction. A considerable quantity of cotton underwear, both unbleached for the very cheap trade and bleached for the higher grades, is produced in the homes and in the three shirt factories. This home production is limited largely to drawers, the men preferring the imported shirts because of their snug fit and attractive colors and finish. As a result, there is a demand in Bolivia for approximately 35 per cent more shirts than drawers. Several dealers suggested that a market for well-made fabric drawers, of cotton, might be developed, and probably a considerable demand for such drawers as a substitute for the crudely made garments now used would be found to exist from the first.

Germany surpassed all other countries in the quantity of underwear sold in Bolivia prior to the war. Much of the goods imported as German is said to have been of Spanish manufacture, and at present the Spanish exporters are sending the same goods direct to Bolivia. In comparing the Spanish shirts and drawers with those of American manufacture the dealers find that American goods are poorly finished and that Spanish garments at a given price are for this reason more salable in Bolivia than American goods of the same quality. The better grades, as well as the cheaper, should have stamped on both garments the factory mark, and for this purpose colors that readily wash out should be used. Dealers claim that

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British goods thus marked are for this reason more salable than similar goods from the United States, which are unmarked. In the better grades of underwear this mark should be of attractive design and carefully put on, and the garments should be folded so as to leave the mark exposed to view.

The strongest demand is for a heavy cotton garment that can be wholesaled in La Paz for about $20 per dozen suits. In lighter weights goods are imported from Europe that can be sold at wholesale for as little as $12 per dozen. In woolen goods the price for mixtures should be about $30 per dozen suits in La Paz.

Sizes are much less varied than in the United States. In the lower-grade garments of Spanish manufacture, only three sizes (1, 2, and 3) are known. In the better grades the sizes are expressed metrically. Bolivian men are smaller-waisted in proportion to their height than are men in most other countries, and a customer who buys American drawers to fit his waist usually has to get drawers that are too short for him. The introduction of American underwear on a large scale during the last two years has tended to familiarize the Bolivian market with the American system of size marking. It will probably be found advisable, however, to adopt the metric system for this and other South American districts.

The uniform rate of duty assessed against all classes of underwear in the Bolivian tariff is 40 per cent of the official valuation on each kind of underwear, plus 15 per cent of the duty to cover the surtax on all dutiable articles. The following list shows the official valuation given to each kind of underwear for the purpose of the tariff law:

Kinds of underwear.		Official valuations.	
		Bolivianos	*Dollars.*
Woolen, knit or flannel	per dozen	36	14.40
Woolen, mixed with silk	do	60	24.00
Woolen, mixed with cotton, fleece-lined, pure or mixed	do	24	9.60
Linen, pure or mixed with cotton, and of Scotch yarn or its imitations, including inner packing	per kilo	8	3.20
Of linen tissues	per dozen	36	14.40
Cotton, plain or knit, with or without border	do	12	4.80
Plain, twilled, with or without border	do	18	7.20
Plain, mixed with wool	do	20	8.00
Plain, mixed with silk	do	48	19.20
Vicuña wool	do	72	28.80
Silk	per kilo	70	28.00
Silk mixed with other materials	do	56	22.40

HOSIERY.

There is no factory making hosiery of any kind in Bolivia; there is, however, a considerable production of coarse woolen socks in the altiplanicie, especially on the shores of Lake Titicaca, where knitting is a household industry engaged in by practically all the women and girls. The Peruvian town of Juliaca is the center of this knitting industry, and considerable quantities of socks, caps, and other woolen articles are peddled to travelers at this point or are shipped into La Paz and other centers to be peddled in the local markets. The socks produced at Juliaca are of coarse homespun and undyed woolen yarn, and are of coarse workmanship. They are strong and warm, however, and of the quality required by the Indian laborer

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for winter use. These home-knit socks retail in the local markets for about $0.25 per pair or less.

Except the coarse woolen socks woven at home and worn only by the better-dressed Indian laborers, the Indian men of Bolivia seldom wear socks at all. Their foot covering consists of a sandal made of the locally tanned cowhide and fastened with thongs of cowhide at the instep. It provides protection to the sole of the foot in walking over the rough trails of the mountains. The Bolivian Indian has a remarkable lack of sensitiveness to cold in his feet. These men walk through the snow-covered trails on the mountains without foot covering of any kind, sleep with the feet exposed, and seem to be heedless of any discomfort arising from this practice. The demand for very cheap socks is therefore much less than one might expect it to be in a country like Bolivia.

Germany enjoyed a lead over all other countries in the value of its shipments of hosiery to Bolivia prior to the war. But, as was the case with underwear imported from Germany, many of the socks had been of Spanish manufacture, and during the last two or three years the Spanish exporter has entered the Bolivian market direct. Several of the principal importers have resident agents in France and Spain, and thus the Spanish manufacturer has been saved the expense of introducing his own goods. American hosiery is being introduced in increasing quantities and at present probably not less than half of all the hosiery imported is manufactured in the United States. Of late the Japanese have been making efforts to introduce their goods on the west coast of South America, and some of the commercial travelers seem to fear that Japan is destined to become their strongest competitor in this market. At present American goods are more than holding their own as to both quality and price. The popularity of American knit goods, especially of American hosiery, is a most encouraging feature of the Bolivian situation.

The demand is largely for black socks, mostly cotton, with a small demand for light woolen socks, also black, for winter wear. Novelty socks, striped or embroidered, find a fair market among the better-dressed people. There is a demand for a very low-priced, striped sock for sale to the laboring classes. Among this class the use of shoes and stockings is becoming more popular and the demand for the cheap striped socks is increasing.

The well-dressed Bolivian is apt to be difficult to please in the matter of hosiery and underwear. He wants a well-finished article and is more or less indifferent as to the price. The American silk sock is beginning to be known in Bolivia, and the prospect is that this article will find a strong demand. It has the style, the finish, and the wearing quality, as well as the moderate price, that should make it acceptable in the Bolivian market. Hosiery of the better grades should be full-fashioned, made to fit the foot and ankle. The demand for fancy hosiery, clocked, embroidered, etc., is in proportion about as strong in Bolivia as it is in other markets, provided, however, the colors are not too bright.

There is considerable demand for black and for tan woolen socks. It is important to the white man in Bolivia to keep his feet warm. At the extreme altitudes the circulation is not good, and for any one but the Bolivian Indian, who is inured to the climate and atmospheric conditions, it is difficult to keep hands and feet comfortable.

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Golf is a game much indulged in by foreigners and by Bolivians who have traveled. For this reason and because of the popularity of horseback riding, there is a considerable demand for heavy golf stockings, of which the best sellers are dark gray or black. They come mostly from England at present, as do most of the woolen socks sold in Bolivia.

American socks are so well known in Bolivia that even the general public understands the American sizes. There would seem to be no necessity for a change in this respect, although several importers who are handling European goods, seemed to be of the opinion that they would find it easier to introduce American goods if the sizes were expressed decimally. The sizes most in demand are 8 to 10; there is a limited demand for sizes larger than 10.

The low-priced cotton socks, if in desirable colors, find a sale if they can be placed in La Paz at about $1.75 per dozen. Thread socks of good quality and costing $5 to $9 per dozen in La Paz seem to be the type of lightweight hosiery in best demand. Lightweight socks should have double heels and toes, and in the very light weights the foot also should be double. Vegetable-silk socks that can be laid down in La Paz at about $7.50 per dozen find a good sale. These too should be mostly black, although there may be some demand for deep blues and other similar colors. These socks are sold at wholesale in La Paz at about $10 per dozen and retail for 4 bolivianos ($1.60) per pair.

Hosiery, both for men and for women, imported into Bolivia pays an import duty of 35 per cent, based on the official valuation, plus a surtax of 15 per cent of the duty. The valuation is based on the weight with inner packing. The following is a list taken from the Bolivian tariff law, showing the official valuation per kilo, legal weight—that is, including inner packing—of the different classes of hosiery mentioned in the law: Cotton, with or without seams, for men, women, or children, $1.20; hosiery of openwork cotton or mercerized hosiery, $1.80; hosiery, the same as the preceding, but having silk stripes or other silk designs, $2.40; hosiery, woolen or wool with cotton admixture, $2.80; hosiery, same as preceding, but with silk stripes or other designs, $4; hosiery of linen or Scotch yarn, or imitations thereof, $5; hosiery, same as the preceding, with silk stripes or designs, $8; silk hose, $28, if pure, and if mixed with cotton or other material, $22.40; unbleached cotton hose for workmen, $0.60.

The import duty on hosiery to which an official valuation of $1.20 per kilo has been given would be 35 per cent of $1.20, or $0.42 per kilo. On hosiery valued at $28 per kilo the rate of import tax would be 35 per cent of $28, or $9.80 per kilo. In each case the duties would be increased 15 per cent by reason of the customs surtax. It is evident that the exporter should avoid so far as possible everything that may tend to increase the weight of his shipment. Cardboard containers, etc., in which fancy hose are packed for export, enter into the dutiable weight of the shipment and pay an import tax per kilo at the same rate as do their contents. Some exporters save this additional expense for import duties to their Bolivian clients, by shipping under separate invoice and in separate packages, the cardboard containers in which they desire to have their hosiery exhibited for sale. The saving effected on each shipment in this manner is considerable and may be sufficient in the aggregate to win the trade in any given line.

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Packages containing hosiery and other similar small articles of wearing apparel should be securely packed in such a manner as to reduce to a minimum the danger of damage from moisture and the danger of loss from pilfering. Packages should be strong, though not too heavy; and they should be securely nailed or screwed, carefully bound with strong steel straps, and sealed.

Separate figures are not published for hosiery in the official statistics of Bolivia. The various classes imported are included under their respective heads as textiles. It is, therefore, impossible to state the exact volume or value of this trade. That it is considerable is evident from the large number of firms handling hosiery both in La Paz and in the rural districts of Bolivia. There are reasons to believe that this trade is rapidly increasing in volume, and that as the laboring classes are learning to wear shoes, the demand for cheap hosiery, particularly, is increasing.

SUSPENDERS AND GARTERS.

Probably no American manufactured article has succeeded in supplanting its European competitor more thoroughly than has the American suspender in Bolivia during the last two or three years. This success has been achieved by intelligent publicity and by scrupulous care in attending to the most minute details of the trade. Dealers know the name of one American brand and the buying public has become so familiar with it that it has adopted the American trade name as a synonym for suspenders. Prior to the war practically all the suspenders used in Bolivia came from Germany, England, or France. One variety made by the French firm of Guyot was especially well known. Not a pair of European suspenders is to be found in the La Paz stores to-day. The demand is mostly for white suspenders, with some call for blue. Suspenders made of figured materials are not good sellers. If the suspenders are to be anything but white or blue, they may have conservative stripes of blue, purple, green, etc., on a white ground, or white stripes on a blue or other ground.

The climate in Bolivia tends to rust metallic articles, and cheap metallic trimmings are liable to be so badly corroded before they even reach Bolivia that the suspenders are unsalable. All metallic parts should, therefore, so far as possible, be such as will not corrode in any climate. En route to Bolivia goods are likely to lie for some time in the warm, damp climate of the Panama Canal Zone. The heat and dampness aboard ship are also liable to occasion deterioration. Too much care can not be taken to protect against these influences goods on which metallic trimmings are used.

The castoffs that button over the button strips are much preferred. These should be made with as little metal as possible. The leather castoff with a white metal button is the best for Bolivia. Button strips may be either of strong white leather or of webbing. If of webbing they may be elastic or not. In the better-grade suspenders there seems to be a tendency to favor the elastic button strips.

The popular-priced suspender sells in La Paz for about $0.60. Were it possible to introduce a suspender that could be retailed for less than this a large demand for such an article could be created.

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High-grade suspenders sell for $1.25 and upward. The official statistics as at present published do not show the volume of the Bolivian trade in suspenders. The use of belts for supporting the trousers is not at all common in Bolivia; the use of suspenders is practically universal.

What has been said of the success of the American suspender, might be repeated with almost equal truth with regard to the American garter. The American garter is known everywhere in Bolivia, even in the retail stores that cater to the laboring population. Formerly an all-kid garter made in France was supplied to the Bolivian trade, but this has practically disappeared in the face of the American garter, which is held to be far superior and which sells at a lower price. An American garter sold at wholesale by jobbers in La Paz at 8.25 bolivianos per dozen is meeting with marked success. Other American types sell at prices about 25 per cent higher. Not one dealer was found who had any complaint to make with regard to the American suspender or the American garter.

Suspenders and garters pay, irrespective of kind or quality, the uniform rate of 40 per cent based on an official valuation per kilo of weight, including inner packing, plus a surtax of 15 per cent of the duty. Comment made with regard to hosiery, also subject to an import tax based on the same basis, applies with equal force to suspenders and garters. Care must be taken to keep the weight of the cartons, paper wrappers, etc., as low as practicable. The following is a list of the various kinds of suspenders and garters mentioned in the Bolivian tariff, together with the official valuation of each class:

Kinds of suspenders and garters.[a]	Official valuation per kilo, legal weight.	
	Bolivianos	*Dollars.*
Of cotton or other vegetable material	6	2.40
The same with admixture or embroidery of silk	12	4.80
Of wool, with or without admixture	7	2.80
Of silk, with or without admixture	32	12.80
Of metal or leather	7	2.80

[a] No distinction for tariff purposes is made between suspenders and garters with and without elastic or wire.

BELTS—PUTTEES AND LEGGINGS—NIGHT GARMENTS.

Belts are not generally worn in Bolivia, but there is a limited demand for belts to wear with athletic costumes. These may be of black leather or of fabric to match the clothing. There is a stronger demand for plain leather belts, both tan and black, with or without holsters, for use by miners and prospectors or by hunters. Such belts should be of the kind usually used for similar purposes in the United States. Buckles should be, so far as possible, nonrusting. Metallic buckles enameled to match the belts in color are acceptable. The Indians wear a sash, which is usually knitted at home or made of some bright-colored fabric. These latter are so low-priced that there would seem to be no demand for an imported substitute.

While most miners prefer the high-top mining shoe or leather boot, a very good quality of which is manufactured at Oruro, to either fabric or leather leggings, there is nevertheless a demand for

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both leggings and puttees of foreign manufacture. In 1915 there were imported leather leggings weighing 655 pounds and valued officially at $469. In the Bolivian tariff leather leggings are given an official valuation of $2.80 per kilo, on which the import tax is 40 per cent. Canvas leggings have an official valuation of $3.20 and also pay an import tax of 40 per cent. Both the rates given are exclusive of the 15 per cent surtax. Fabric puttees pay in accordance with the fabric of which they are made. It is not probable that the importation of puttees or leggings will grow rapidly, because of the good quality of the high shoes manufactured in Bolivia and because of the high tariff rates.

A considerable trade in knit puttees from Spain is carried on. These are retailed in La Paz for 9 bolivianos (about $3.60) per pair. They are well made, and the demand seems to be increasing. Such leather leggings as are imported are about equally divided between pigskin and cowhide. They come mostly from England and are of good quality. Only the well-to-do farmers, Army officers, etc., use them, and the demand is limited. There is a growing demand for light gray spats and gaiters for both men and women. These are of cloth and buttoned, of the same general character and quality as those worn in the United States.

There is a very slight demand for imported night garments of any kind. Those worn are usually made at home. They are of either cotton or woolen flannel and must be warm. Several dealers carry a small stock of ready-made pajamas on hand for their best customers but the movement in these is very slow. Nightgowns are not carried in stock; there seems to be no demand for the ready-made ones. It would seem possible to popularize the use of pajamas in Bolivia and thus create a good market for this type of garment. In this connection it must be remembered that the nights are cold in Bolivia and the houses seldom provided with any means of heating. In consequence the demand will be for warm flannel night garments at all seasons. Silk pajamas are naturally little in demand.

WEARING APPAREL FOR WOMEN.

The women of Bolivia are sharply divided into two or three social groups, distinguished by their costumes. A small proportion of the women of Bolivia dress much as do women in Europe and the United States, and this proportion is increasing in spite of the innate conservatism of the Indian women. American ready-made clothing, when adapted to the climatic conditions described and when suited to the tastes of the Bolivian woman, is acceptable to this class. French and other European manufacturers have built up a considerable trade in Bolivia, and the imports of ready-to-wear apparel for women are considerably greater than those of men's apparel.

Between the class mentioned and the Indian there is an important group, which may be said to be in a transition stage; the women of this latter class wear black skirts and a black shawl-like head covering, which may, no doubt, be traced to the Moorish influences over their Spanish ancestors. Many women of this class are noted for the fine quality of their clothing, and much of the apparel imported is for them.

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THE CHOLITA AND HER COSTUME.

No one who visits La Paz or other cities of the Bolivian altiplanicie will come away without a vivid recollection of the Bolivian cholita. This is the name applied to the Indian half-caste women who have adopted the ways of modern civilization and dwell in the more important Bolivian cities. These cholitas are noted for abundance and even superabundance of clothing. They glory in fullness of skirt, which is obtained by adding one skirt over another of different lengths, the under ones showing in tiers. Even when shabbily clad the cholita will wear six or eight skirts, and the number sometimes runs as high as a dozen. The skirts are short, reaching only a few inches below the knees, for the cholita is very proud of her high shoes. These shoes are the most elaborate shoes made anywhere. They are usually of white kid or colored soft leather, 10 or more inches high, and much decorated with buttons and silk tassels. They have moderately high heels and are snug-fitting, giving an air of elegance to the wearer. Lace and embroidered stockings are frequently worn, and the skirts are always short enough to show these off to the best advantage.

Fullness is obtained not only by the number of skirts worn, but by an amount of material in each skirt that would make the advocate of economy shudder. It is not unusual for one of these skirts to measure 5 or 6 yards in its lower circumference. This fullness is gathered in at the waist. The skirts of the cholita are not fitted over the hips but are gathered by means of shirring in the finer skirts and by draw strings in the more ordinary garments.

The great weight of skirts, for many of these skirts are of heavy woolen materials, which the cholita supports from a narrow string drawn tightly round her waist, interferes with circulation and must result in much suffering and even serious ailments. I have noticed on rare occasions what seems to be a beginning of skirt reform among these women. The reformed skirts are no less numerous than the others, but they are differently constructed. In these skirts a close-fitting yoke covers the hips and the fullness begins only at the bottom of the yoke.

Most of the skirts at present worn by the cholita are made at home from woolen goods known as bayeta, a kind of baize or flannel with an unusually long woolly nap on one side, woven for the most part in Manchester. Of this material 204,425 pounds, valued at $96,208, were imported in 1915, and of this amount 198,802 pounds came from the United Kingdom and insignificant quantities from Peru and Argentina. Not all this material was employed in making skirts. Much went into shawls and blankets and jackets, but most of it was made up into skirts by the cholita women of the altiplanicie.

Not all the skirts of the cholita, however, are made of woolen goods. Many are made of cotton, and there is a growing market for embroideries for this purpose. There is also an increasing demand for lingerie. The imports of all kinds of lingerie during 1913 amounted to 296,247 pounds, valued at $197,113, and much of this no doubt was for sale to the cholita. The market for this type of goods, however, is one that requires careful study on the part of the manufacturer. The conservatism of the cholita, like that of the Bolivian laborer, is

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proverbial. New styles are not readily adopted, and a manufacturer desiring to enter this market with his goods will find it necessary to modify his patterns and styles to suit the well-defined tastes of these customers.

The waists worn by the cholita are a jacket-like garment usually made of cotton or woolen flannel. Only in rare instances do the cholitas wear corsets. Ordinarily the waist is a loose-fitting garment, not fitted at the belt. In practically every store handling women's wearing apparel there was a fair stock of these flannel blouses, and most of the dealers were complaining of the fact that the war had seriously interfered with their supply. No doubt a small market for this type of garment can be developed.

As the poncho is the typical garment of the Andean man in both Bolivia and Peru, the shawl is the garment universally worn by the women. Originally woven on crude hand looms, of yarns spun from selected wool, undyed, the shawl of the Bolivian woman was dull gray or black and white striped. Factory-made shawls have been introduced without great difficulty, and the German or British shawl is well known in La Paz and other similar centers. The shawls worn by the cholitas are frequently very fine and much ornamented. The silk shawl from India and Japan is finding a good market here. It is not unusual to see a well-dressed cholita on the public square of La Paz with as many as three shawls over her shoulders, and the wearing of two shawls superimposed is usual. These shawls are so arranged on the shoulders of the wearer that they all show at the edges, and the bulky skirts of gay-colored baize make a suitable background for the delicate shades and fringes of the embroidered silk shawls that have become popular.

The European mills have made a careful study of the type of shawl demanded in Bolivia and have introduced a product that has almost driven out the home-woven article. At first an effort was made to reproduce the dull colors obtained by the careful sorting of the undyed wool, but it has been found that the taste of the cholita can be developed for shawls of other types and that the chief requirement is that the shawl be both serviceable and ornamental.

In the official statistics the shawls are lost in the various classifications of textiles and exact figures showing the number and value of the imports can not be given. That this number is considerable and that the market is one worthy of the best efforts of American manufacturers is apparent from the universal use made of the shawl by the Bolivian woman. At present (midsummer, 1917) the stock of shawls in Bolivia is exhausted. The war has cut off to a great extent the supply from Europe, and with practically no exception the importers are seeking a new source of supply. While the stock of baize held out much of it was made up into shawls; but now baize is difficult to obtain, and there is no source from which shawls can be secured.

Much of the wealth of Bolivia, both agricultural and mineral, is the property of the cholos. They are liberal purchasers of jewelry and dress with a quite unusual lavishness. The integrity of this class of the Bolivian population is said to be beyond reproach, and the shrewdness manifested in driving bargains and in handling industrial operations of considerable importance is worthy of admiration. Undeveloped though it be, the market for wearing apparel

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adapted for sale to the Bolivian chola class is one of considerable proportions and well worthy of the best efforts of the American manufacturer. It is a market in which American standards are not known, and consequently American manufactures, unmodified, will not find ready acceptance. Much difficult campaigning and much serious study will be required to capture this market, but the conservative character of the Bolivian will favor the manufacturer whose goods are accepted. He will not have to contend with frequent changes of patterns and styles nor with any keen competition.

OUTER GARMENTS.

The Bolivian market for ready-to-wear factory-made garments and suits for women is much better developed than that for men's apparel. As a result, the imports of women's clothing are considerably greater than those of men's clothing. The following table is a statement of imports of women's clothing into Bolivia in 1913, 1914, and 1915, by principal countries of origin:

Countries of origin.	1913		1914		1915	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Germany	230,008	$184,465	142,837	$106,668	18,532	$13,208
France	32,812	47,550	25,940	47,922	3,294	15,280
Italy	15,668	12,471	7,458	5,122	2,573	1,608
United Kingdom	13,053	11,932	8,980	10,615	1,526	4,767
Belgium	8,197	9,229	4,308	3,979	2,353	1,259
Spain	5,937	4,896	11,925	7,151	3,680	3,271
Argentina	5,048	4,434	2,796	2,852	4,912	3,643
Chile	3,186	6,356	759	1,306	1,323	2,829
United States	2,507	3,729	2,121	3,139	1,477	3,680
Peru	2,450	4,709	393	70	44	313
Brazil	441	1,328	802	805	176	468
Austria	114	227	60	121	26	62
Netherlands	55	78	40	20	1,190	988
Switzerland	38	181	.....	.....	161	102
Uruguay	.....	.....	220	137	.....	.....
Portugal	.....	.....	183	241	.....	.....
Denmark	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,775	2,608
Total	319,514	291,585	208,822	190,148	45,042	54,086

The entrance of Denmark as a factor in Bolivian trade occurred during 1915 and has continued since. The trade that the Danish merchants are obtaining is not entirely new trade, but rather trade that prior to the war was conducted through Hamburg by German exporting firms. At present the Danish manufacturers are making a serious effort to conduct their trade with Bolivia direct.

While most of the wearing apparel was supplied by Germany prior to the war, the best of it came from French and Belgian manufacturers. While the average value of the German goods was only $0.80 per pound, that of the French goods was as high as $1.45 and that of the Belgian goods somewhat more than $1 per pound. It was claimed by dealers that garments manufactured in the United States were less satisfactory in style than those manufactured in Europe. American manufacturers have made no serious effort to enter this market. They have not studied the styles suitable to Bolivia and can not expect to have goods that are standard in the United States find ready acceptation in Bolivia. The skirts worn in Bolivia are wide;

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narrow skirts have no market at all. The methods employed by European manufacturers, who send their experts to La Paz and other Bolivian cities, with samples of garments, must be followed if Americans are seriously to enter this field.

Of the wearing apparel for women imported into Bolivia in 1915 La Paz took goods valued at $23,685; Cochabamba, $9,240; Potosi, $7,810; Oruro, $6,429; and Tarija, $4,747. Of the remainder less than $1,000 went to Sucre and slightly more than $1,000 to the remaining cities of the Republic. The goods sold in La Paz and Cochabamba were the higher-priced, and these two cities are the best-developed markets for this kind of merchandise.

SUITS AND SEPARATE SKIRTS.

In the matter of clothes, the women of Bolivia have shown themselves to be less conservative than the men. The Bolivian woman has never allowed herself to fall victim to poor tailoring, as have the Bolivian men, and the demand for ready-made suits for women has developed much more rapidly than that for men's clothing. The value of the women's suits imported into Bolivia is considerably more than twice the value of men's suits imported. There are several prosperous establishments in La Paz that carry good stocks of well-assorted suits, skirts, shirt waists, coats, etc. A considerable number of the Turkish and Syrian retailers are found to carry women's suits, skirts, waists, etc., suitable for the less exacting trade that comes to their stores.

The two principal importers of women's suits are both partly financed from France and support resident buyers in Paris. The spirit of these establishments is French. While the resident manager may make purchases for stock in an emergency, he usually informs his Paris buyer of his needs and depends upon this buyer to select the goods, arrange all matters concerning payments and shipment, and forward the goods to the La Paz establishment. The Bolivian market has been studied by French salesmen and saleswomen, and the French suits are adapted to the requirements of the Bolivian client. French fashion journals circulate throughout Bolivia and are read in many of the best homes. A considerable colony of Bolivians is resident in France, and this colony exerts a powerful influence over the tastes and standards of relatives and friends in Bolivia. In addition to this indirect influence over the market, Bolivians residing abroad frequently act as agents for friends in Bolivia and make purchases and forward goods at their request. As a result, the imports of women's clothing through the parcel post have been considerable since the establishment of this service, and they tend to increase in volume and importance. The manager of one important firm located at La Paz, which imports women's clothing from France and Spain, was in New York for a few hours during May, 1917. He had been so fully convinced by things he had heard that nothing suitable for the Bolivian market was being produced in New York or elsewhere in the United States that he had failed to arrange for a stay over there. But he was so favorably impressed with what he saw on the first day that he did stay over and make some purchases. This dealer stated that in workmanship, quality,

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finish, and price the American suits and skirts were superior to those that he had purchased in France. It happened, however, that in the brief time at his disposal he had been unable to buy any skirts of a width suitable for the Bolivian trade. He had brought down about 100 suits as an experiment, and he was enthusiastic as to the prospect of introducing American ready-made suits for women into Bolivia.

That the Bolivian woman is well posted as to fashions and styles was illustrated by the experience of one American dealer located in La Paz. This dealer had made some purchases of last season's goods with the expectation of selling them in La Paz. When the goods arrived he found that the Paris styles of the season were already known and that it was not possible to market his suits at any price.

The prejudice against bright colors is as pronounced in the matter of clothing for women as it is in that for men. Blacks especially are demanded. There is some demand for dark grays and blues. In general, the color requirements in suits for women are practically the same as those mentioned in discussing men's apparel. In the summertime there is a limited demand for dresses of lighter materials, and in these brighter colors are tolerated, but in general it is not advisable to send bright colors to Bolivia. For summer wear dresses made of linen and heavy cotton fabrics would find a strong market in La Paz and similar centers. For winter wear the demand is for coat suits in heavy cotton fabrics, wool mixtures, or all-wool materials.

The cheapest dresses and suits retail in La Paz for 30 to 80 bolivianos ($12 to $32), and the better-grade suits and dresses are sold as high as 300 and 400 bolivianos ($120 and $160). Several coats, fur and fur-trimmed, had been marked for sale at 300 bolivianos, and several as high as 500 bolivianos, and the dealer stated that he would find a sale for them. In these garments the profit of the retailer is excessive, and his ability to get these prices is due solely to the fact that he has no competition in Bolivia. The average prices paid for suits are $40 to $60. Suits selling for these prices find a good movement and are carried in considerable stock by several retailers.

Bolivian women are not so tall as women in the United States, nor are there relatively so many stout women in Bolivia. The metric system adopted in French for marking women's suits is the only one understood. Suits marked on the French system from 42 to 50 are the best sellers, and the strongest demand is for suits ranging from 44 to 48 in the same system.

The demand for separate skirts is strong now and is increasing. The art of dressmaking is not developed in Bolivia. Many of the women have learned to do most artistic needlework while attending the convent schools, but none have learned to make dresses or skirts of heavy materials. The skirts in demand are of the same style of material as the suits already described—heavy linen and similar skirts for summer wear and dark-colored woolen and cotton skirts for winter. The skirts should never be narrow, but with this exception the market can not be said to be exacting in the manner of style. To sell well in this market skirts must be moderate-priced; that is, they should retail at $3 to $15 in La Paz. Silk petticoats are little worn.

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For summer wear, as has been stated, cotton and linen fabrics in dark greens, blues, etc., are demanded, in both dresses and separate skirts. Silks are much appreciated. Taffeta, however, does not stand the climate well, and the silk fabrics sent to Bolivia should be other than taffeta. For winter suits velvets and woolen suitings are used, and for evening gowns silks and crêpes.

An important portion of the women's wearing apparel used in Bolivia is made at home. There are seamstresses in La Paz and other cities who work by the day. There are no modistes or dressmakers, properly so called, and the Bolivian woman who desires to have her clothing made to measure must do her own planning and fitting. None of the finer grades of clothing are made at home. The best demand is for imported factory-made suits and dresses. Even of shirt waists and separate skirts there is no local production on a large scale, and the demand for the imported factory-made garments is becoming stronger all the time. The women of La Paz with whom the subject was discussed, and also the importers, stated that the best-dressed women of Bolivia prefer imported, ready-made garments to any others.

DRESSES.

The evening dresses worn by Bolivian women must be made with sleeves or half-sleeves and not too low-necked, because the nights are usually cold and the houses unwarmed. The evening dresses most worn are much like the afternoon dresses used in the United States, especially those made of the sheer fabrics, crêpes, etc. The Bolivian women are much less exacting in the matter of styles in evening dresses than one might expect, and several importers stated that La Paz is an excellent market in which to work off leftovers purchased abroad after the closing of the season.

During 1915 the imports of wedding dresses and baptismal robes amounted to goods valued in the official statistics at $2,376. There is a growing demand for this kind of goods and a market exists for a quantity considerably greater than is indicated by the official statistics, where values are frequently understated. There is an especially strong demand for very elaborate baptismal robes. These come mostly from Paris and are elaborately trimmed with laces and embroideries. Their use is universal among the better families where it is customary to treasure as heirlooms the robes in which the little ones are christened.

There exists a considerable demand for wash dresses of the cheaper varieties in La Paz and Cochabamba. The colors should be such as will withstand the hard usage to which the dresses are submitted by the Bolivian washwoman, and the dresses should be made of strong serviceable material and in plain styles. These goods are at present imported mostly from England by a firm doing business in La Paz under the name of "El Condor." The opportunity for the American manufacturer to enter this market is most favorable, and there is reason to believe that the American dress will be well received in Bolivia. The dresses carried in stock are mostly lawns and percales, but there is a limited demand for good linen dresses. White is little worn, even in summer, and the lighter colors are not popular. Blues, black and white checks, grays, etc., are the popular colors.

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COATS AND SWEATERS.

Woolen fabrics are most in demand for women's coats. The use of fancy goods is less common than in the United States. As has already been pointed out in connection with suits, the taste of the Bolivian woman is conservative in the matter of colors. There is, however, a growing tendency to wear coats and cloaks of less severe appearance, and many of the fancy weaves that are popular in the United States would probably find acceptance in Bolivia.

The demand is for an average-quality coat that can be sold at retail in Bolivia for $20 to $40. There is a small demand for coats and cloaks of better grade and much higher price. Several retail establishments had in stock cloaks of sealskin or other expensive material, which they had marked for sale as high as $200 or more. Fur-trimmed coats are popular. The demand for furs could easily be increased and an excellent market for this class of goods developed, especially in La Paz and Potosi. The strongest demand would be for muffs and neck pieces of fox or the other more moderate-priced varieties, with an increasing, though limited, demand for higher-grade goods.

There is nothing distinctive about the style adopted by Bolivian women in the matter of cloaks and coats. The articles at present carried in stock in La Paz and other cities are the goods left over at the close of the last season in Paris. Several of the best stores make an effort to keep their clients informed as to fashions and styles by distributing French literature. American manufacturers might gain a more favorable hearing in La Paz if they were better represented in the fashion literature that is being read by the Bolivian public. The average Bolivian importer scoffs at the idea of desirable styles originating in the United States. His clients have been so thoroughly trained to look to Paris for anything really good in this connection, that they have never thought of New York or Philadelphia as a place where fashions might originate. In this regard American manufacturers will have a difficult and arduous campaign to conduct before they can expect their goods to find a ready acceptance in Bolivia.

The coat sweater of cotton and wool for women is a very popular garment in Bolivia. The plain rib sweater of wool with cotton admixture in gray, blue, green, and other solid colors is the sweater most in demand. The fancy stitch, striking color designs, etc., are not much liked by the Bolivian woman. The silk sweater is an article of only recent introduction. One importer had just received an excellent assortment of silk sweaters from New York and was enthusiastic about the manner in which they were being moved. The great bulk of the sweaters for women come from Spain. The American sweater is not yet well known. Men's coat sweaters, with or without collars, of the gray wool type worn by athletes, are much demanded for winter wear. The stock of sweaters on hand at La Paz, when considered in connection with the demand for these garments, is very low. Retailers were selling their goods at considerably more than double their cost, and the movement was good in June, 1917, in spite of the high prices.

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SHIRT WAISTS AND APRONS—VEILINGS.

There is a good market in La Paz and other Bolivian cities for shirt waists, both of the lower-priced qualities and of the better grades. The shirt waist is very generally worn, and the ready-made shirt waist is being imported in increasing quantities. Every department store in La Paz has a good assortment of these garments and the small Turkish and Syrian retail shops and jobbers import them in quantities. The American shirt waist is probably better received, especially the cheaper varieties, than that from any other country. There is also a strong demand for warm jackets and blouses of cotton or woolen flannel or similar material. These are used by the women in the homes, where no provision is made for heating the living rooms. In several department stores there were considerable stocks of this class of waist, which had been imported from France and in which the movement was said to be excellent. There was no evidence that American manufacturers had made any effort to secure a portion of this trade.

The cheapest shirt waists retail in La Paz for 3 bolivianos ($1.20) each. Shirt waists that can be retailed in La Paz at 8 to 15 bolivianos (about $3 to $6) are most in demand. Fancy silk and velvet waists are retailed for as much as 50 bolivianos ($20). In shirt waists white is well received. White lawn waists, without too much embroidery or lace, which could be retailed in La Paz for $1.50 to $3, would certainly find a strong market. In importing shirt waists much use is made of the parcel post. In making shipment by parcel post American manufacturers should insure the goods through to their destination against damage, loss, or pilfering.

Aprons are not much worn in Bolivia, and the few that are worn are made in the homes. It is not probable that an effort to develop a market for factory-made aprons would produce results commensurate with the expense and trouble.

For some unknown reason the ordinary face veil is not much worn in Bolivia. Probably an intelligent effort along the right lines would result in the more frequent use of the veil. The mantilla, or black lace fascinator, much worn in Spanish countries, is not so popular in Bolivia as one might expect. It is not customary even for well-dressed women to wear the lace mantilla at church. Instead a shawl-like head covering is worn, which is usually of fine lawn or cashmere and consists of a square of the material carefully hemmed or hemstitched and measuring 5 to 6 feet on a side.

Bolivian women wear mourning a great deal, frequently mourning of the deepest sort. There is a considerable demand for mourning bonnets and veils. These are of the same varieties as those worn in the United States but at present are imported mostly from France.

OTHER GARMENTS.

KNIT UNDERWEAR AND PETTICOATS.

The union suit, or "combination," as it is known in Bolivia, is of rather recent introduction. It is becoming rapidly popular, and even at present the demand for union suits is almost as great as that for separate-piece suits. The demand for light woolen garments is

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stronger than for cotton. The shirt should have full or half sleeves. There is practically no demand for the sleeveless garment, because of the cold nights and unwarmed drawing-rooms. In separate garments there is an especially strong demand for light-gray wool drawers. They should be closely knit and well finished. They should be ample, so as to fit loosely. The knee may be drawn in with elastic or left open; it should not be fitted tight to the limb. At the knee the only trimming popular is a little crocheted edge of the same material and style as the garment.

The knit underwear comes from France and Spain. Imports of this class of goods from the United States have been negligible in quantity. There is reason to believe that the fleece-lined cotton drawers made in the United States would find acceptance in Bolivia. Several importers stated that they had had success with these and would be glad to continue handling them. In fact, the stock of knit underwear at La Paz in June, 1917, was practically exhausted. There was a strong demand for garments of every kind, and the present would seem to be an excellent time for American mills to press the sale of their goods in Bolivia.

Knit petticoats have been imported from Europe and have sold well in the Bolivian market. At present there are none in stock. The demand is for light wool or wool with cotton mixture of gray or other plain color. The demand for bright colors in petticoats or underwear is very slight. The gray, unbleached, or cream-colored garments are the more acceptable. Knit skirts selling at retail in La Paz for $5 and up are the type most demanded.

LINGERIE.

A large proportion of the undergarments worn is made at home. The demand for imported lingerie is, however, considerable, especially among the well to do and the better-dressed cholitas. In 1913, which was a year of heavy buying in Bolivia, the imports of lingerie were officially valued at $197,113, and the weight of the garments imported was 296,247 pounds. In cotton garments England led, with Germany and Italy as close competitors. In garments of materials other than cotton, Germany led, with England and France as nearest rivals. All the statistics of Bolivia are based on the official valuations, which are more or less arbitrary, as will be seen by an examination of the table showing the valuations placed on lingerie of various classes, which appears later in this report.

The following table shows the imports of cotton and other lingerie into Bolivia in 1914 and 1915 by principal countries of origin:

Classification and countries of origin.	1914		1915	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Lingerie, cotton:				
United Kingdom	61,534	$25,770	15,787	$7,426
Germany	29,765	23,591	3,850	5,214
Italy	10,931	5,004	1,299	1,320
Spain	4,370	2,011	641	863
France	2,694	3,354	648	716
United States	2,388	2,530	2,725	2,860
Argentina	2,198	1,911	2,324	1,694

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Classification and countries of origin.	1914		1915	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Lingerie, cotton—Continued.				
Brazil	725	$1,061	929	$1,614
Peru	652	458	479	298
Chile	513	871	75	114
Belgium	500	511	148	77
Portugal	106	192	.....	.....
Uruguay	92	33	.....	.....
Switzerland	15	50	.....	.....
Netherlands	1	2	49	80
Total	116,484	67,349	28,954	22,276
Lingerie, other:				
Germany	12,114	13,753	9,046	4,742
United Kingdom	6,358	5,428	15,670	5,228
France	5,785	7,927	2,300	1,320
Italy	3,720	2,460	4,347	3,106
United States	1,843	1,448	2,507	2,669
Argentina	1,631	3,420	3,731	3,506
Belgium	915	715	245	174
Brazil	602	552	3,255	2,096
Spain	304	419	6,451	4,972
Chile	234	467	1,235	1,358
Peru	46	34	575	431
Japan	6	264	22	216
Netherlands	.....	.....	4,603	1,455
Denmark	.....	.....	185	334
Total	33,558	36,887	54,172	31,607
Grand total	150,042	104,236	83,126	53,883

The cotton lingerie imported from the United Kingdom and Italy was about of the average valuation, whereas that imported from the United States was considerably above this valuation. The average valuation for cotton lingerie was about $0.58 per pound in 1914 and $0.77 in 1915. It is apparent that the first trade to be cut off by the trying times of 1915 was that of the cheaper varieties. Now that prosperity has returned to Bolivia, the demand for this class of lingerie has also been renewed. The success of the higher grades that have been imported from the United States should encourage manufacturers of the cheaper grades to make an effort to enter the market with their product.

While the imports of cotton lingerie fell off from 116,484 pounds to 28,954 pounds, with an increase in the average valuation from 1914 to 1915, the imports of lingerie other than cotton increased from 33,558 pounds in 1914 to 54,172 pounds in 1915, and the average valuation fell from about $1.10 per pound to about $0.58 per pound. It is evident that when the usual supply of the cotton goods was cut off by the war an effort was made to substitute other goods. In this connection the entrance of the Netherlands with lingerie of extremely low valuation is interesting, as well as the very remarkable increase in the imports of similar goods from the United Kingdom. The scarcity of the lower-priced cotton garments created an increased demand for the higher-grade garments manufactured in the United States, and the table shows an actual increase in imports of American goods. Japan has entered this market and promises to become an important factor in the trade of the future.

Much underclothing not properly classified as lingerie is included in the official statistics, and it is impossible to state the amount of this trade.

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Of the cotton lingerie imported, nearly one-third was for La Paz in 1915, while Potosi and Oruro together took practically another third. Of the lingerie other than cotton, practically half of the quantity was sold in La Paz and less than one-fourth in Potosi and Oruro together. Potosi purchased lingerie of cotton in 1915 to the extent of 4,859 pounds, officially valued at $3,167, and lingerie of other materials to the extent of 7,917 pounds, valued at $7,396. Oruro during the same year purchased cotton lingerie weighing 3,819 pounds, valued at $2,979, and lingerie of other materials weighing 4,826 pounds, valued at $2,684. La Paz purchased by far the largest quantity of lingerie consumed in Bolivia and goods sold in La Paz are of a higher grade than those consumed in other centers. After La Paz, Potosi occupied second rank in both the quantity and the quality of the lingerie imported. After the three cities mentioned, Cochabamba and Tarija are of importance and should be visited by commercial travelers making a first study of this market.

Low-priced cotton underskirts, corset covers, chemises, etc., find a considerable sale among the cholita women and are found in the retail establishments controlled largely by Syrians and Turks at La Paz and other cities. In the better establishments at La Paz cotton lingerie is not carried in considerable stocks, with the exception of brassieres, corset covers, etc. The proprietors of these stores stated that most of the better-grade lingerie is made in the homes and that there is not much movement for stocks of petticoats, chemises, etc. The articles carried by the stores visited were of the plainest varieties, very little lace or embroidery being used in their manufacture. There is, no doubt, an opportunity to develop a much greater demand for goods of this sort than at present exists. There is practically no demand for silk lingerie.

When statistics for years later than 1915 are published they will without doubt show a satisfactory growth of the trade enjoyed by the United States. All the dealers visited were enthusiastic over American goods. The style, finish, and price are satisfactory and the goods arrive in first-class condition. While Bolivia does not offer a market of great proportions, the fact that it is largely centered in La Paz, Potosi, and Oruro makes it an easy market to work, and the success of American products should encourage American manufacturers to continue the effort to increase the quantity of their lingerie exports to Bolivia.

BLOOMERS—HOSIERY.

There is practically no demand for bloomers in Bolivia. The Bolivian woman is not given to athletics in any form, there are no bathing beaches in the Andean highlands, and the prospect is that a demand for bloomers will not develop at an early date.

In the better grades of hosiery—those that can be sold at wholesale in La Paz for $5 to $10 per dozen—the demand is almost exclusively for full-fashioned hose. Lisle-thread or vegetable-silk hose are popular in this market. The half-silk hose imported from the United States, when of good quality, is a good seller. In the lower-priced article there is no demand for those that fit the ankle. Shoes are much more generally worn by the Indian women in Bolivia than by the men of the same class, and the market for cheap hose for women is

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fairly good. The well-dressed cholitas are apt to be very exacting in the matter of hose. For this trade lace and openwork stockings are most in demand. The colors are practically always black. One department store had on hand an assortment of silk hose from the United States of excellent quality and consisting of 27 distinct colors. The proprietor of this establishment was enthusiastic about these hose and stated that they were as good movers as any merchandise he had ever imported. He was retailing them for 5 bolivianos ($2) per pair, a price that seemed much higher than would be warranted even in these days of high prices. If an effort were made to sell such hose at fair prices, the demand could probably be more than doubled. Black is most in demand, though there is some call for plain white hose and for fancy colored hose for evening wear. The cholita market, which is quite apart, is for clocked, openwork, lace, and other fancy stockings. The official statistics for hosiery are not published, but it is certain that American goods are daily gaining ground in Bolivia; they are always well spoken of.

CORSETS.

Until recently the corsets imported into Bolivia came almost exclusively from France. The American corset has, however, been successfully introduced, and in several of the better retail stores, which in most lines handle French goods exclusively, the American corset was apparently popular. There is a demand for corsets of the best grades in limited quantities only. These corsets may be in colors and of the finest materials; they are worn by the women of the upper classes. There are no facilities for making corsets to measure, and the retail stores do not provide expert fitters. There is no doubt that the service of an expert fitter in one of the establishments dealing in the better grades of corsets would not only increase the business of the establishment introducing this service, but would tend to popularize the corset sold. The cholita is rapidly adopting the corset as a part of her raiment, and thus the demand for moderate-priced corsets is increasing. Bolivia is a limited market for such goods as corsets. None of the retailers have found it necessary or profitable to carry in stock a very wide assortment, and the trade has learned to be satisfied with the goods offered. The market is not exacting and there is no very keen competition among the stores selling the higher-grade goods. The lower-priced American corset is meeting with a well-deserved success in Bolivia. No complaint was heard against this article and much flattering comment was made as to the excellent quality, fit, and workmanship of the American corset. Several American manufacturers have granted the exclusive sale of their corsets to retailers in La Paz. In doing this they have invariably made wise selections of their representatives. The assistance that the American manufacturer has given in the way of publicity literature, advertising, etc., is much appreciated and has no doubt been of great influence in popularizing the American goods.

GARTERS—BELTS—KIMONOS.

The round garter is worn to a great extent in Bolivia, especially by women who have not adopted the corset. Such garters are made in the homes, and every notion store carries in stock a good assort-

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ment of silk and cotton elastic for this purpose. Garters of the suspender type are usually imported from the same sources as the corsets. The American garter is as popular as any other. There is some complaint that the suspenders attached to the cheaper corsets have metallic buckles and snaps that corrode easily and many of these arrive in a more or less damaged condition. Exporters must not lose sight of the fact that goods en route to Bolivia have to traverse the warm, damp belt at Panama, where they are delayed in transshipment. Articles in the manufacture of which metallic ornaments of any kind are used should be of the best quality in order to avoid the danger of corrosion. The garters usually match the corset in color; in both corsets and garters the strongest demand is for plain white.

There is practically no demand for belts except for very small girls. Several stocks of patent leather and other belts were shown, which jobbers found it impossible to move at any price.

For the full-length kimono to be used as a dressing gown or bathrobe there is little demand. For the half-length kimono or dressing sack of some warm material to be worn about the house, the demand is fairly strong. Such kimonos should be of some warm material with a soft nap. Cotton and woolen flannels are much used for this purpose.

TARIFF RATES.

The following table shows the official valuations and the tariff rates (exclusive of the 15 per cent surtax) on various articles of women's clothing imported into Bolivia:

Articles.	Units.	Official valuations.		Rates of duty.
		Bolivianos.	*Dollars.*	*Per cent.*
Boas:				
Fur—				
Up to 50 centimeters	Dozen	36.00	14.40	40
More than 50 centimeters	do	72.00	28.80	40
Feather—				
Up to 50 centimeters	do	42.00	16.80	40
More than 50 centimeters	do	84.00	33.60	40
Silk or silk and cotton tulle, including weight of inner packing	Kilo	50.00	20.00	40
Drawers:[a]				
Knit or of pure woolen flannel	Dozen	36.00	14.40	40
Woolen mixed with silk	do	60.00	24.00	40
Woolen mixed with cotton, fleece-lined, pure or mixed	do	24.00	9.60	40
Linen, pure or mixed with cotton, and lisle thread or its imitations, including inner packing	Kilo	8.00	3.20	40
Of linen fabrics	Dozen	36.00	14.40	40
Plain, cotton or knit, with or without border	do	12.00	4.80	40
Plain, twilled, with or without border	do	18.00	7.20	40
Plain, mixed with wool	do	20.00	8.00	40
Plain, mixed with silk	do	48.00	19.20	40
Vicuña wool	do	72.00	28.80	40
Silk	Kilo	70.00	28.00	40
Silk mixed with other materials	do	56.00	22.40	40
Bathing suits, for men and women:				
Cotton, including inner packing	do	3.00	1.20	40
Scotch thread or its imitations, including inner packing	do	8.00	3.20	40
Knitted wool, pure or mixed	do	6.00	2.40	40
Drawers for women, of cotton, linen, etc.:				
Cotton fabric	Dozen	12.00	4.80	40
Embroidered, trimmed, or ornamented in any manner	do	24.00	9.60	40
Linen—				
Plain	do	36.00	14.40	40
Trimmed or ornamented in any manner	do	48.00	19.20	40
Of woolen fabric, all classes, trimmed or ornamented in any manner or not	do	36.00	14.40	40
Silk, including inner packing	Kilo	70.00	28.00	40

[a] Union suits are valued according to the classification of their component parts. Underwear, if appraised by the dozen, is allowed a rebate of 40 per cent if for children and 75 per cent if for infants.

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Articles.	Units.	Official valuations.		Rates of duty.
		Bolivianos.	*Dollars.*	*Per cent.*
Shirts and chemises:				
Silk, including inner packing	Kilo	70.00	28.00	40
Silk, with cotton admixture, including inner packing	do	60.00	24.00	40
Cotton, knit, with or without border	Dozen [a]	12.00	4.80	40
Chemises for women:				
Cotton—				
Plain	do	20.00	8.00	40
Trimmed, embroidered, or ornamented in any manner	do	40.00	16.00	40
Linen—				
Plain	do	60.00	24.00	40
Trimmed or embroidered	do	84.00	33.60	40
With lace, and other kinds, n. e. s	(b)	(b)	(b)	40
Camisoles, with or without collar attached:				
Knit, wool or flannel	do	36.00	14.40	40
Mixed with silk	do	60.00	24.00	40
Mixed with cotton and those of flock wool, pure or mixed	do	24.00	9.60	40
Linen, with or without cotton mixture, and those made of Scotch thread or its imitations, including inner packing	Kilo	8.00	3.20	40
Linen fabric	Dozen	38.00	15.20	40
Plain cotton, or knit cotton, with or without border	do	12.00	4.80	40
Plain cotton, twilled, with or without border	do	18.00	7.20	40
Mixed with wool	do	20.00	8.00	40
Mixed with silk	do	48.00	19.20	40
Vicuña wool	do	72.00	28.80	40
Silk	Kilo	70.00	28.00	40
Silk mixed with other materials	do	56.00	22.40	40
Belts, net weight				40
Neckties for women:				
Cotton plush	Dozen	10.00	4.00	40
Cotton plush, mixed with silk	do	14.40	5.76	40
Cotton lace	do	15.00	6.00	40
Silk, with lace and ribbons, with or without admixture of other materials	do	36.00	14.40	40
Wool, with or without cotton admixture, including inner packing	Kilo	8.00	3.20	40
Wool, with silk, including inner packing	do	15.00	6.00	40
Corsets:				
Cotton, all sizes	Dozen	15.00	6.00	40
Cotton, with silk embroidery or lace	do	20.00	8.00	40
Linen, all sizes	do	36.00	14.40	40
Linen, with silk embroidery or lace	do	60.00	24.00	40
Silk, all kinds and sizes, with or without admixture of inferior material	do	144.00	57.60	40
Collars and cuffs for women: [c]				
Cotton lace, including inner packing	Kilo	14.00	5.60	40
Cotton—				
Untrimmed, including inner packing	do	10.00	4.00	40
Trimmed, including inner packing	do	12.00	4.80	40
Linen—				
Untrimmed, including inner packing	do	12.00	4.80	40
Trimmed, including inner packing	do	14.00	5.60	40
Silk, trimmed or not, with or without admixture of another material	Dozen	36.00	14.40	40
Fur or fur-trimmed	(b)	(b)	(b)	40
Feather	Dozen	30.00	12.00	40
Jackets, called "jerseys," and sweaters, including inner packing, as follows:				
Knit—				
Cotton, bordered or not	Kilo	8.00	3.20	40
Wool, pure or mixed, plain or trimmed—				
Common	do	10.00	4.00	40
Fine	do	12.00	4.80	40
Silk	do	72.00	28.80	40
Silk, mixed, trimmed or not	do	50.00	20.00	40
Overjackets—				
Cloth, cassimere, felt, and waterproofed material	Each	10.00	4.00	40
Other materials	(b)	(b)	(b)	40
Knit of flock wool, for men or women	Kilo	3.00	1.20	40
Knit, woolen	do	4.00	1.60	40
With silk sleeves, with or without lace or embroidery strips	do	8.00	3.20	40
Underskirts, made up or in pieces, including inner packing, as follows:				
Cotton—				
Plain or trimmed with lace or edgings, other than silk	do	5.00	2.00	40
Embroidered	do	10.00	4.00	40
Linen, pure or mixed—				
Plain or trimmed with lace or edgings	do	6.00	2.40	40
Embroidered	do	11.00	4.40	40

[a] Shirts appraised per dozen shall be increased in valuation by 15 per cent when they have embroidered fronts.

[b] Ad valorem.

[c] Cambric, gauze, or tulle collars and cuffs, bordered or figured with colors interwoven, pay duty according to the lace or trimmings of which they are made.

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Articles.	Units.	Official valuations.		Rates of duty.
		Bolivianos.	*Dollars.*	*Per cent.*
Underskirts—Continued.				
Short skirts of wool, with or without admixture of material other than silk—				
Plain or trimmed	Kilo	10.00	4.00	40
Embroidered	do	15.00	6.00	40
Knit—				
Cotton or with admixture of other vegetable materials	do	4.00	1.60	40
Wool or with admixture of material other than silk	do	6.00	2.40	40
Wool mixed with silk	do	12.00	4.80	40
Silk—				
Plain or trimmed	do	72.00	28.80	40
Mixed with other materials	do	40.00	16.00	40
Stoles, all kinds, for women	(a)	(a)	(a)	40
Muffs, fur, all kinds	(a)	(a)	(a)	40
Aprons, made up or in patterns, including inner packing, as follows: b				
Of wool, cotton, or linen	Kilo	3.50	1.40	40
Same, ornamented or embroidered	do	7.00	2.80	40
Waterproof, with or without rubber	do	5.00	2.00	40
Of silk	do	60.00	24.00	40
Of silk, with admixture	do	45.00	16.00	40
Cotton sleeves, of all sizes, pairs	Dozen	12.00	4.80	40
Same with linen cuffs	do	18.00	7.20	40
With lace	do	48.00	19.20	40
Cloaks and wraps, including inner packing, as follows:				
Merino, cashmere, wool satin, etc.—				
Plain or trimmed with passementerie, ornaments, blonde or fringes, called "Veronicas"	Kilo	10.00	4.00	30
Embroidered or with silk fasteners	do	15.00	6.00	30
Woolen crêpe, espumilla, or nun's veiling	do	10.00	4.00	30
With silk fasteners	do	18.00	7.20	30
With admixture of silk or with woof of silk	do	40.00	16.00	30
Cotton espumilla	do	5.00	2.00	30
Silk espumilla, not including boxes	do	70.00	28.00	30
Embroidered, not including boxes	do	90.00	36.00	30
Silk with woof of wool or cotton	do	50.00	20.00	30
Bodices of all kinds	(a)	(a)	(a)	40
Shawls of all kinds, including inner packing:				
Cotton, with or without wool fringes	Kilo	2.20	.88	40
Cotton netting and crochet, with or without woolen fringes	do	4.00	1.60	40
Wool, with or without admixture or woof of cotton	do	3.50	1.40	40
Vicuña wool, merino, or cashmere, dyed or printed	do	6.00	2.40	40
Wool—				
With silk stripes, figures, or insertions	do	8.00	3.20	40
With silk woof or embroidery	do	12.00	4.80	40
With cotton insertions	do	7.00	2.80	40
Knitted wool	do	8.00	3.20	40
With silk stripes or plush trimmings	do	10.00	4.00	40
With admixture or woof of silk	do	16.00	6.40	40
Mantles—				
Tulle netting, cotton netting, or crochet	do	6.00	2.40	40
Embroidered with wool or cotton	do	7.50	3.00	40
Embroidered or trimmed with silk	do	9.00	3.60	40
Goat's hair	do	12.00	4.80	40
Linen tulle, plain or embroidered	do	30.00	12.00	40
Kerchiefs, capes, etc., of grosgrain, Pekin, serge, or taffeta silk, plain or embroidered	do	50.00	20.00	40
With admixture of any inferior material	do	30.00	12.00	40
Veiling, etc., of transparent silk netting or fabric (except those of tulle, lace, and blonde) plain, open-worked, figured in the loom, with or without fringes	do	100.00	40.00	40
Mantelets, laces, and like articles, of silk, tulle, lace, or blonde, with or without admixture of cotton or linen c	do	150.00	60.00	40
Shields, dress:				
Rubber with woolen, cotton, or linen fabrics, including inner packing	do	6.00	2.40	30
Same fabrics, without rubber	do	4.50	1.80	30
Rubber with silk fabric, with or without admixture of any other material, including inner packing	do	14.00	5.60	30
Silk fabric, without rubber	do	10.00	4.00	30
Corset covers, including packing: d				
Of cotton fabric	do	4.00	1.60	40
Of linen fabric	do	6.00	2.40	40
Dresses, all kinds, for women and children e	(a)	(a)	(a)	40

a Ad valorem.

b Embroidered aprons of the kinds mentioned pay a surtax of 25 per cent; those of kinds not mentioned pay a duty of 40 per cent ad valorem.

c These articles, of kinds not specified, pay duty as the fabrics in whose class they fall.

d Corset covers of silk, with or without admixture, and knitted corset covers of cotton or wool are appraised as undershirts of their respective kinds. Embroidered or trimmed corset covers pay a surtax of 25 per cent and those trimmed with silk tulle a surtax of 50 per cent.

e Dress patterns, unsewed, with trimmings or ornaments, are valued, including boxes, in the textile classes to which they belong, plus 10 per cent. Embroidered dress patterns are valued 25 per cent higher than other dress patterns.

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CHILDREN'S CLOTHING.

Boys' ready-made suits are becoming more and more popular in Bolivia, and their importation from France, Spain, and Italy is noticeably increasing. Uniform suits, sailor or military styles, with or without cap to match the suit, are especially popular. The sailor suits are made usually with long trousers, flaring at the bottom, but many come with knee breeches also. The suits with long trousers are always navy blue, but those with knee breeches may be of other dark colors. Knit jersey suits, consisting of blouse and knee breeches, for very small boys are also much used in the colder months.

Dresses for girls have not been imported to the same extent as have suits for boys. Such dresses are largely made at home. The opportunity to develop a demand for girls' dresses at La Paz would seem to be excellent. The styles and materials worn in the United States would be proper for the Bolivian market.

In boys' suits the demand is for very cheap materials (cotton or cotton mixtures) and for the plainest make. The styles are those worn in Europe and the United States. The two-piece suits are popular, and the coat that buttons up to the throat, thus making unnecessary the wearing of a fine or expensive shirt, is the coat most in demand.

In topcoats the demand is not so strong as one might expect. Only the boys of the well-to-do families can afford to wear topcoats, and the climate is such that they do not need to wear them continuously for many weeks during the year. While it is usually cold at night and warm clothing is required, the days are temperate in Bolivia, and boys, who are out mostly by day, do not require overcoats as much as men.

Moderate-priced underwaists, with or without stays, for the girls are much worn. These are usually provided with garters. The boys wear the round garter, which is for the most part made at home.

Rompers were only recently introduced from the United States; the small number imported proved popular and there is an opportunity to develop a considerable demand. They should be of the same style and material as those sold in the United States.

The shirts and blouses worn by the boys are for the most part made in the homes, because importers have made little effort to introduce foreign garments of this type. The Bolivian mother and father will spare nothing that gives the little ones pleasure or adds to their appearance. The market for children's wear is quite undeveloped, and the prospect of an increase in the imports is excellent. Several importers, who are familiar with the type of children's garments produced in the United States, stated that these would find a ready sale and strong demand, especially in La Paz, and, with proper advertising, in other Bolivian cities.

Ready-made night garments for children are unknown in Bolivia. Those worn are mostly gowns of cotton flannel. Probably an intelligent effort to introduce night garments for children, of the types worn in the United States, would meet with sufficient success to warrant the effort. Children's underwear is to a great extent made at home, because no effort has been made to introduce this class of goods from abroad.

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Both stockings and socks are worn by the children of La Paz. The Indian children do not wear shoes and stockings, and the demand for these is limited very largely to the upper classes. In the stockings the demand is for the cheaper ribbed varieties in both cotton and wool. Socks for very small children, in both white and black, are used only to a limited extent. Stockings of the type worn by boys in the United States are, to some extent, salable to the Indian women.

GLOVES.

Until recently Germany enjoyed a great lead over all competitors in the glove trade of Bolivia. The cutting off of communication at the outbreak of the war left the Bolivian importer with no source from which to draw a new supply of gloves, and in June, 1917, the stock on hand in La Paz was practically exhausted. Stories of almost incredible prices paid for the few gloves that remained in the hands of the jobbers were heard in several establishments; one retailer stated that a glove that he formerly sold at retail for 5 bolivianos ($2) with a good profit was then costing him 96 bolivianos ($38.40) per dozen.

Kid gloves are preferred by men in Bolivia and cloth gloves by women and children. In 1914 there were imported 1,718 pounds of cloth gloves and 705 pounds of leather gloves of all kinds. More than four-fifths of the leather gloves and more than half of the cloth gloves were sold in La Paz in 1915. The demand is mostly for a cheap glove of the kind imported from Germany.

The following table shows the imports of leather and cloth gloves into Bolivia in 1914 and 1915, together with the principal countries of origin:

Kinds of gloves and countries of origin.	1914		1915	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Leather gloves:				
Germany	245	$1,612	18	$67
United Kingdom	240	1,515	113	774
France	157	746	9	68
United States	60	262	2	2
Chile	2	2	5	8
Argentina	1	2	3	10
Total	705	4,139	150	929
Cloth gloves:				
Germany	1,577	3,539	89	393
France	64	188	21	78
United States	33	144	.....	.....
United Kingdom	29	72	14	18
Argentina	15	46	2	6
Chile	.....	.....	40	89
Peru	.....	.....	1	2
Brazil	.....	.....	1	.....
Total	1,718	3,989	168	586

The disappearance of the United States from this market is interesting to note. Probably American manufacturers will not find Bolivia a market for the high-grade gloves that they are producing. Just at present there is a great demand for gloves of any kind and at almost any price; normally the trade is about as indicated in the foregoing table, with some tendency to increase in volume.

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Manufacturers desiring to introduce their gloves into Bolivia must not lose sight of the fact that the import taxes on gloves in that country are based on legal weight. All cardboard containers and other materials used in the inner packing that would tend to increase the weight should be left out or forwarded in separate packages and listed in the invoice separately, in order to get the advantage of the lower rates collected on such goods. It is in paying close attention to these minute details of the market conditions in an effort to reduce to a minimum the cost to the importer, that our competitors acquire their most noticeable superiority over the American exporter. Every importer states that American goods arrive in fine condition, that their attractive packing helps to sell them, but that any advantages thus gained are lost because of the increased price that has to be paid for goods thus packed for display. There is another danger in providing very attractive containers in the fact that some of the importers are not overscrupulous in the use they make of these containers once their original contents have been disposed of. It is not unusual in some Bolivian stores to find goods of a very inferior character displayed in containers that originally held superior goods of the same variety. By permitting the too liberal use of such containers, manufacturers run the risk of having a good trade name most unjustly ruined. Goods intended for the Bolivian market should for the most part bear an attractive trade-mark of some kind, and containers should be so constructed that they are no longer usable after their original contents have been removed.

The following table shows the official valuations of different kinds of gloves in the Bolivian tariff and the rates of duty, exclusive of the 15 per cent surtax:

Kinds of gloves.	Unit.	Official valuations.		Rates of duty.
		Bolivianos.	*Dollars.*	*Per cent.*
Cotton, knit:				
Common texture	Kilo	5.00	2.00	30
Fine texture, with or without embroidery, and of linen, lisle thread, or its imitations	do	16.00	6.40	30
Linen, knit, with mixture of silk	do	22.00	8.80	30
Cotton, knit, with mixture of silk	do	20.00	8.00	30
Woolen, knit, with or without mixture of other material, except silk	do	12.00	4.80	30
Cloth or other woolen fabric, with or without mixture of other material, except silk	do	14.00	5.60	30
Silk, knit, with or without pieces of other material	do	72.00	28.80	35
Silk, with admixture of cotton or linen	do	42.00	16.80	35
Skins or leather, all kinds	do	40.00	16.00	35
With cotton, wool, or silk lining and with pasteboard cuffs	do	20.00	8.00	35
For fencing or boxing	do	4.00	1.60	30
Hair, hemp, or jute for rubbing skin	do	6.00	2.40	30

Except in La Paz, Bolivians have not generally adopted the wearing of gloves. In such cities as Potosi the sale of gloves is limited to the very well to do and to foreigners. This condition is due, no doubt, in great measure to the lack of intelligent enterprise on the part of retailers in placing their goods before the public. A line of gloves introduced into Bolivia with something like the intelligent selling campaign by which the American garters and suspenders or the American shirts and collars have been introduced, would no doubt find the market much better than is indicated by the trade statistics published.

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HANDKERCHIEFS.

The wearing of mourning in Bolivia is much more frequent than in the United States and there is an unusually strong demand in that country for handkerchiefs, in both men's and women's sizes, of white material with a black mourning border. Such handkerchiefs, in both cotton and linen, are always salable in Bolivia, and every dealer has on hand at all times a considerable stock. In men's handkerchiefs of all kinds the demand for the wide hem is much greater than that for the narrow hem. Several dealers stated that they found it impossible to sell handkerchiefs having a narrow hem and that they were disposing of their stock of these almost exclusively to women. The demand in men's handkerchiefs is for a material somewhat thicker than that considered most desirable in the United States. There is practically no demand for the very thin handkerchiefs, especially in the lower-priced varieties.

In the better-grade nandkerchiefs for men the demand is for good heavy linen and cotton handkerchiefs, with a plain white or black hem about an inch wide. In these high-grade handkerchiefs the hem should be hemstitched and the article well-finished. In the lower-priced handkerchiefs the demand is for white handkerchiefs with a colored hem of the same width as the above, or for a printed handkerchief with a solid hem of some attractive color. Black and white dotted handkerchiefs were very popular at Potosi, and I found it impossible in that city in November, 1916, to purchase a white handkerchief of any kind. There is a fair demand for handkerchiefs with embroidered initials. For the women's trade the demand is mostly for black-bordered cotton and linen handkerchiefs. In white, handkerchiefs with a little lace or crochet edging are the best. Bolivian women all learn to do fancy work, embroidery, etc., in the convent schools, and many of the best handkerchiefs are made at home.

The following table shows the official valuations of various kinds of handkerchiefs and neckerchiefs and the rates of duty, exclusive of the 15 per cent surtax:

Kinds of handkerchiefs [a] and neckerchiefs.	Official valuations per kilo.		Rates of duty.
	Bolivianos.	*Dollars.*	*Per cent.*
Cotton:			
Hemmed or not, without lace or embroidery	2.00	0.80	30
Imitation foulard	3.00	1.20	30
Mercerized	2.50	1.00	30
Imitation silk foulard	7.00	2.80	30
With embroidered initial or name	5.00	2.00	30
Gauze:			
Embroidered and in imitation of cambric	8.00	3.20	30
Trimmed with cotton blonde or lace	16.00	6.40	30
Trimmed with linen blonde	24.00	9.60	30
Linen,[b] with or without admixture of cotton, embroidered or not	6.00	2.40	30
Linen tulle,[b] embroidered or not	10.00	4.00	30
Linen batiste,[b] embroidered or not	20.00	8.00	30
Silk foulards, for hand or neck:			
Not embroidered	50.00	20.00	35
Embroidered	70.00	28.00	35
Floss silk	30.00	12.00	35
Silk with admixture of other material	25.00	10.00	35
Embroidered	35.00	14.00	35
Wool, for the neck, with or without silk stripes or figures	15.00	6.00	30

[a] It will be noted that in the case of handkerchiefs as of gloves the import tax is based on the weight of the goods with all interior wrappers and containers, but not the outer case. The comment made in connection with the packing of gloves is applicable with equal force to handkerchiefs. Every effort should be made to reduce the weight of interior packings to a minimum.

[b] Handkerchiefs of linen, linen tulle, and linen batiste increase their respective valuations 30 per cent if they have an admixture of silk or silk stripes, blondes, or embroideries.

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There is a fair demand for the large red bandannas to sell to the Indian laborers. These should be of the type and size known in the United States.

RAINCOATS AND RUBBER GOODS—SPORT CLOTHING.

In the mining districts and for prospectors working in the mountainous districts, there is a demand for the usual heavy rubber coat. These should be made warm and with a warm turn-up collar. In the cities the demand is rather for a waterproofed coat that may be used on occasion as a lightweight overcoat. Rubberized coats are not especially popular; a limited number of such coats, however, is imported, largely from England. There is not much demand in Bolivia for the very cheap variety of raincoat. As has already been said, the Bolivian Indian and laborer wear the poncho as both overcoat and raincoat, and there is no demand from this class of the population for the ordinary coat. The demand is among foreign engineers, miners, etc., and is for the better grades. Rubber coats selling in Bolivia for $5 up are acceptable. The best demand would seem to be for a coat that could be retailed in La Paz for about $8 to $10. In the coats made of waterproofed fabrics, those selling in La Paz at retail for $15 to $25 are the varieties most in demand. These should be of good finish and for the most part of gray or other dark color. The prevalence of fawn-colored garments among the Indians makes it undesirable to offer a high-grade garment of khaki or other similar color for sale in this market.

There is every reason to believe that a considerable demand could be created for a waterproof poncho, both of rubber or rubberized material and of some waterproofed fabric. Such a poncho should be about 6 feet square, with a slit in the center for the head. It should be ornamented at the edges with one to three stripes about an inch wide of a color several shades darker than that of the poncho. Similar stripes, but narrower, should be placed on either side of the neck opening, if possible; these, however, should not extend across the poncho. Ponchos should be of khaki, fawn color, or gray.

The official statistics of the imports of raincoats into Bolivia are not published. Rubber goods with an official valuation of about $10,000 were imported in 1916. But in this figure is included the value of the rubber tires for automobiles, etc., along with rubber shoes and coats. Of the total rubber imports nearly half came from the United States in 1916. The stocks of raincoats on hand are mostly of British origin, the British cravenette cloth being especially popular in Bolivia. There is practically no demand at present in Bolivia for rubber shoes.

There is a considerable demand in all parts of the Bolivian altiplanicie for gray woolen coat sweaters made with the high roll collar. The demand is for the cheaper varieties and by proper effort could be much increased. These sweaters are indispensable to those who play golf or tennis and are much worn by travelers, miners, and others. There is a limited demand for riding breeches and coats and for knee breeches for golfers. The summer demand for flannel trousers is limited, although some few are imported from England at present. The demand for woolen caps is unusually strong. These are not made to match the clothing, and the demand covers a con-

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siderable range of styles and qualities. The market for bathing suits is limited. The waters of Lake Titicaca and of other lakes and streams on the altiplanicie are fed from the near-by snow-capped peaks and at the high altitudes at which these are located the water is always ice-cold. Bathers have been known to take a plunge in Lake Titicaca, but such feats are rare.

MERCHANDISING METHODS.

FOREIGN SALES METHODS.

Paris fashions dominate the market for women's apparel and, together with the London styles, exert a strong influence over men's wear. For many years French influences have been strong in both the political and the social life of Bolivia. In the city of Sucre a very considerable percentage of the educated people are able to converse in the French language. In both the copper mines at Corocoro and the tin and silver mines at Potosi the oldest and strongest companies are of French nationality. Other important industrial enterprises are operated under French influences and have been financed largely in Paris. As a result there has developed a current of travel between Bolivia and France which, interrupted temporarily by the war, will probably be renewed in the future. Moreover, French manufacturers have made a systematic effort to sell their goods in Bolivia. Their agents have visited the country with samples, several of the important importing houses at La Paz and elsewhere are owned entirely or in part by Frenchmen, and others have purchasing agents permanently residing in Paris.

Several months ago, early in 1917, while en route from Mollendo to La Paz, I became acquainted with a saleswoman who was traveling in the interest of a French manufacturer of women's suits and other apparel. This saleswoman had never visited South America before and during her brief stop in Peru had been able to acquire only a poor working knowledge of the Spanish language. One could not but admire the ingenuity with which she made her French vocabulary do duty in lieu of Spanish. Arriving in Arequipa, this French woman rented quarters in the central part of the city. It was Saturday when she arrived, and in spite of the late hour she was able to obtain space in the Sunday morning papers for an announcement that ran about as follows:

> Mme. ——— ———, modiste, recently arrived from Paris, has established her headquarters at ——— ———, where she will be pleased to meet the ladies of Arequipa. Mme. ——— ——— has with her a full line of samples, and there will be in attendance a corps of expert seamstresses who will be at the disposition of the mesdames of Arequipa.

Her next move was to call upon several convents in which girls were being instructed in sewing and dressmaking and obtain the services of several promising apprentices. This woman stated that her first purpose was an intensive study of the market for French dresses in Arequipa. In making her sales she would have an opportunity to study the tastes and the figures of her clients; and while she expected to make sales sufficient to cover all expenses of her trip, the practical and useful information that she would take back with her to th[illegible] would be worth far more than the business she might

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do. The courage of this trade scout, the businesslike manner in which she went about her duties, and the energy that she manifested in getting started made a deep impression on me. American manufacturers will find it necessary to display similar zeal if they are to enter this market with hope of permanent success.

Another instance that came under my observation recently was that of a young man who arrived in Santiago, Chile, at the beginning of winter to sell overcoats. He had brought with him several hundred overcoats. He rented a small showroom on the main street, not far from the most popular business men's lunchroom and near the most important club in the city. He put out streamers announcing that on Monday he would conduct an auction sale of overcoats. He had a tailor with him to remodel the coats purchased when necessary. He did a very successful business for nearly two weeks. The information that he was able to collect himself and through the records of his tailor was invaluable to a manufacturer of overcoats desiring to enter this market.

The British salesman of woolens is an apostle for British tailoring, and wherever he goes he leaves in his wake a mass of literature telling of the excellence of British styles. At La Paz one tailor, through the cooperation of such an agent, had been able to take a sort of correspondence course in fashionable tailoring under the guidance of a British manufacturer. Then, too, the London tailor is to be found in every Bolivian city. He may not be an Englishman, but the mere assumption of the name "London tailor" gives prestige to his establishment and brings him a better class of business than he would otherwise be able to obtain.

AMERICAN GOODS AND THE BOLIVIAN MARKET.

There is no close social or political or economic bond between the people of Bolivia and those of the United States, such as there is between these people and those of France. The American salesman of woolen goods is unknown in Bolivia, and even if he had visited that territory he would probably not have done so much to advertise American ready-made clothing as his English competitor has done to advertise British tailoring. The conditions of Bolivian trade are, however, growing more and more favorable to American goods. In the mines and other industrial enterprises, in railway construction, and in other large public works American capital is now being employed to an increasing extent, and it is not improbable that new enterprises of this character will for many years have to depend upon the United States for the capital required in their development. The number of American citizens residing in Bolivia is increasing, more firms are willing to handle American manufactures, and the prejudice against American styles in textiles and clothing is being rapidly weakened. In taking advantage of present conditions in Bolivia there is much to be learned from studying the methods of our competitors.

In La Paz and other Bolivian cities there are establishments that specialize in men's haberdashery and notions. These firms handle hats and caps, boots and shoes, shirts, underwear, knit goods, etc. Probably all these firms could handle without increased expense a small line of ready-to-wear suits. To convince them of this is the

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problem facing the American manufacturer. If the American manufacturer would send an intelligent cutter with samples to Bolivia he could probably build up at very little expense a trade that would grow and that from the beginning would be profitable and desirable.

If the French system is contrasted with that employed by some American manufacturers of shirts and collars or underwear, the advantages of the former are readily seen. In La Paz recently an importer of American collars and shirts complained that the traveling salesman who sold him his stock had visited all the cheap Syrian and Turkish stores in La Paz and had sold them the same goods. The result had been the discrediting of the importer's establishment with his customers, who were not willing to purchase the same type and style of goods as were being sold in the cheaper establishments. There is no reason why goods should not be sold to both classes of retailers, but the goods should be of slightly different quality, style, and price. A representative of American wearing-apparel manufacturers might come eventually to La Paz with two distinct lines of samples, one for the better trade and the other for the cheaper trade; but he must avoid selling his goods indiscriminately and thus making it possible for a client of little or no importance to discredit the goods sold to the clients of better standing.

There is no doubt that there exists in Bolivia a prejudice against wearing apparel of American manufacture. This prejudice is fortunately not based on any disagreeable experiences; it is due simply to lack of knowledge. American goods have never been seen on the market. Our competitors have laughed at the idea of Americans ever making goods that would satisfy the fastidious tastes of the Bolivian, and their clients, with no other source of information available, have listened and believed. The successful introduction of the American corset, the American collar, the American shirt, American fleece-lined underwear, the American shoe, and other American manufactures of this character is causing Bolivian importers to wonder whether everything they have heard is true. The success of the American manufacturers who are making a serious effort to enter this market should encourage others to undertake the introduction of their goods into Bolivia. When one has seen the shabby tailoring, cheap trimmings, and poor workmanship that characterize the ill-fitting suits turned out by "London tailors" and others who are providing the men and women of Bolivia with wearing apparel, one is convinced that an intelligent, earnest effort to introduce the clothing made in American factories where the best of materials and workmanship are employed must meet with success.

Success in the introduction of an entirely new line of goods, such as ready-made clothing for men in Bolivia, can not be achieved in a day or without much serious work. The importers are timid, they may be prejudiced against the goods, or they may have had unfortunate experiences with other ventures of a similar character. The public will not be in sympathy with the new goods. It must be educated, and educating the buying public is a slow process. The organs of publicity must be enlisted, not only by well-worded advertisements, but, if possible, by well-written editorial comment. Some European manufacturers publish in the daily press long re-

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views of the fashions and styles, with apt illustrations of their goods. The papers are glad to receive such articles for publication and their preparation need not entail any heavy expense. The salesman who introduces the new lines must be affable, willing, capable of meeting strange people and of accommodating his bearing to the clients with whom he must deal. He must above all things do nothing that may offend the clients in whose hands he must leave the business when he withdraws.

COMMISSION HOUSES.

Several of the commission houses in Bolivia carry considerable stocks of staple goods. They have in their main offices complete lines of samples covering the goods for which they are exclusive agents, and samples of other articles in which they are interested. They all employ a more or less numerous corps of salesmen and cover the entire country or concentrate in certain districts. Opinions differ as to whether or not the foreign manufacturer desiring to place his goods in the markets of Bolivia can do so at less expense and with equal effectiveness by availing himself of the services of such commission houses as he could by having the market covered by his own traveling agents. On the whole, it will probably be found best to combine these methods. There are in Bolivia and other South American countries a large number of small retail establishments, the business of which is considerable in the aggregate but which can not economically be reached by the foreign commercial traveler. The credit standing of many such establishments is likely to vary over a period of a few months, and the foreign exporter finds it necessary to do all his business with them on a strictly cash basis. The commission house, established locally, is in a position to keep in close touch with conditions and can at times make sales by extending more liberal terms than it would be wise for the foreign manufacturer to extend. Then, too, the local commission house can cover the interior markets far more economically than the representative of the manufacturer. Probably most manufacturers will find a certain advantage in availing themselves of the services of the local commission house in a market so limited as that of Bolivia. But manufacturers who are doing business through the local commission houses should not fail to visit the field periodically and thus keep in the closest possible touch with the market and with credit and general trade conditions.

The Bolivian merchant likes to make his purchases from samples. In such out-of-the-way places as Sucre, or as Cochabamba was until recently, it was a great treat for the merchant to have an opportunity to make his selections from a complete set of samples. At Potosi the merchants stated that it was most unusual for a commercial traveler to visit the city and that they did not see complete lines of samples sometimes for months. The trade is therefore not at all well developed. The market is limited but good for moderate-priced articles of good quality. It is unusual for Bolivian importers to fail to live up to their agreements, and losses from bad credit are very uncommon.

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WORKING THROUGH AGENTS.

There are to be found in every Bolivian city well-established houses handling shirts and other wearing apparel for men, and other houses on the order of small department stores, which handle wearing apparel for women. These houses are frequently owned or controlled by European manufacturers and are competitors of American goods. At times, however, such firms are of local organization and independent of foreign control. There is no city in which some such firm may not be found willing and capable of handling American wearing apparel. There are also well-established commission houses of American and other nationalities which maintain selling forces and cover the country well. Such commission houses, however, have so many and so varied lines, that new samples are liable to receive only routine and unsatisfactory attention. No commission house in Bolivia specializes in wearing apparel. Several German firms limit their dealings largely to textiles and knit goods and handle some lines of shirts and other apparel, but the British and American firms are interested in machinery and other lines along with textiles.

The manufacturer entering Bolivia should not expect his agent, whether he is an established retailing and wholesaling merchant or a commission house, to do much of the work or incur the expense necessary to introduce a new line of goods. He must conduct his own campaigns, study the requirements of the market himself, and convince the man he selects to represent him of the advantages and profits to be derived from handling his goods. He must, when he visits Bolivia for the first time, come prepared to spend as much time as is necessary for a complete survey of the market. He must make the acquaintance and win the confidence of possible clients and will probably have to be satisfied with his experience as partial compensation for the expense and labor incurred.

THE COMMERCIAL TRAVELER IN BOLIVIA.

In Tariff Series No. 35, entitled "Commercial Travelers in Latin America," the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce has published a pamphlet containing information that is indispensable to the commercial traveler entering South America for the first time. The traveler should not venture abroad until he has provided himself with proper papers of identification. He should have with him as many good letters of introduction as he has been able to obtain, and he should have a power of attorney from his principals, if he expects to enter into contracts. He should have some means of identifying himself at the American legations and consulates in the territory that he visits. For this purpose the ordinary passport is useful. He should not only have these papers with him, but he should make full use of them. It would be difficult to estimate the substantial losses in trade and prestige incurred by travelers who fail to avail themselves of every opportunity that presents itself of obtaining helpful information or making useful acquaintances and friendships. American diplomatic and consular offices in South America are centers into which a great variety of trade information is constantly flowing, much of which is tabulated and readily available. If the traveler is able to obtain credentials from any of the

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more important chambers and associations of commerce or other similar organizations, he should have them certified by the Bolivian Legation at Washington or some Bolivian consul in the United States and make use of them, because of the prestige that they will give him.

Before beginning to transact business in any Bolivian city the commercial traveler is obliged to present to the city authorities evidence that he has paid the local license tax levied on traveling salesmen and agents. These fees are local in character and vary in the different municipalities. In the aggregate, the amount to be paid by a commercial traveler visiting the principal trade centers of Bolivia would be considerable. These taxes are a serious handicap to the commercial traveler with a limited line of samples, from which it may be impossible to make sales sufficient to warrant even the expense incurred for the selling licenses. The taxes are for the twofold purpose of revenue and for protecting the local merchants from peddlers and other competitors. The taxes are collected from the local firms, which are liable to be zealous in enforcing payment upon any newcomer whose business may be in competition with their own. The taxes are annual and do not limit the holder of the license as to either the volume or the diversity of his transactions. Local firms, having paid the tax, may permit commercial travelers representing lines for which they hold the agency in the locality, to transact business and make sales in the name of the local firm, and thus save the traveler the amount of the tax. Some traveling salesmen do not make any sales until they have appointed some local firm as their agent; then they make their sales in the name of the local firm. This practice is to be recommended to commercial travelers having a single line or a line of samples from which they do not expect to make large sales. Ordinarily, however, there is danger in granting an exclusive agency to a firm of only a few hours' acquaintance, and it is best for the commercial traveler not to incur the heavy expense of visiting Bolivia unless he has samples of such quality and diversity as to make his probable sales at least sufficient to cover his expenses. There is nothing to prevent a salesman from visiting a Bolivian city, making a rapid survey of the market without selling any goods, and determining the line of conduct that he will adopt.

The following table shows the amount of the fees levied on commercial travelers in the principal cities of Bolivia:

Cities.	Amount of fee.		Cities.	Amount of fee.	
	Bolivianos.	*Dollars.*		*Bolivianos.*	*Dollars.*
Cochabamba	1,000	400	Sucre	300	120
La Paz	250	100	Tarija	200	80
Oruro	250	100	Tupiza	200	80
Potosi	200	80	Uyuni	250	100
Santa Cruz	400 and 800	160 and 320			

In the greater number of the Bolivian municipalities the privilege of collecting this license tax is farmed out at an annual public auction to the individual or organization binding itself to pay the largest net revenue to the municipal treasury. The person or organization to whom the contract is thus let is granted considerable discretion in the matter of rebates, etc. Some commercial travelers are able to

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secure liberal reductions in the amount paid as their license tax and thus in practice the amount of the contribution has some relation to the character and volume of the business transacted. There is some sentiment in Bolivia in favor of a reform of this system of licenses, and in the near future a national license will probably be issued at La Paz upon the payment of a reasonable fee by the commercial traveler. There is no doubt that the restrictions placed upon commercial travelers result in serious injury to the importers, for whose protection largely the law was adopted in the beginning. Conservatism, however, is characteristic of all things in Bolivia.

TREATMENT OF SAMPLES IN BOLIVIA.

The following rules regulating the importation of samples into Bolivia are translated from the custom regulations of that country:

Art. 192. Samples are all pieces of textiles and other such articles having no appreciable value.

Samples are also manufactured articles which have a value but which are imported in small quantity and manifestly for the purpose of displaying the character of the articles.

Art. 193. Samples may be disembarked without any delay and at once after the presentation to the customs authorities by the captain of the vessel in which the same are imported of the ship's manifest, and prior to the submission of the itemized manifest of the ship's cargo. Cases containing samples, however, which have been listed in the itemized cargo manifest of the vessel, may not be disembarked prior to the submission of the manifest and must submit to the usual requirements for other merchandise imported.

Art. 194. A special form of invoice is used in declaring samples for entry by the customs authorities. This form is to be made out in quadruplicate.

Art. 195. Customs inspectors will accept as samples only such merchandise as in their judgment can properly be classed as such. If merchandise presented as samples is not accepted as such by the inspector, this fact shall be noted on the declaration and the merchandise will be subject to the duties ordinarily collected on goods of the same class, provided the goods introduced as samples appear in the itemized manifest of the vessel by which they were imported. If not so listed, the goods introduced as samples shall be subject to a fine amounting to double the usual duty.

Art. 196. In the case of "samples without value," the declaration "Muestras sin valor" (Samples without value) written on the invoice will be sufficient. If, however, the samples are dutiable, the invoice must show the mark, the number, and the contents of each package; but it need not contain a statement of the quantity of each sample, this latter information being supplied by the inspector who dispatches and appraises the samples.

Art. 197. If any package is declared to contain "Muestras sin valor" and is later found to contain articles of value and dutiable, such articles shall pay double the ordinary rate of duty.

Art. 198. When packages of merchandise containing dutiable goods are left for storage at the customhouse, samples from these may be removed only once. Permission for removing samples of this nature must be obtained by formal application to the collector of the customhouse in which the goods are stored.

Art. 199. The trunks of commercial travelers containing samples from which sales are to be made and which have been admitted under bond with the understanding that the same, together with all of their contents, shall be reexported, must be presented to the collector prior to their reexportation for the necessary inspection of their contents.

In order to obtain the refund of the amount deposited or the cancellation of the bond, a landing certificate must be presented originating with the collector of the customhouse at the foreign port to which the goods have been transferred or with some Bolivian consular official in that country.

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Unless samples are brought in considerable quantity it is not advisable for the commercial traveler to have them covered by bill of lading and included in the itemized manifest of the vessel. By importing them as baggage he will be able to avoid the frequent delays in the ports, which are sometimes both vexatious and expensive.

In their zeal to avoid the payment of import duty, some commercial travelers permit the customs officials to mutilate their samples in such a manner that they can truthfully be classed as samples without value. In one important commission house at La Paz, there were some interesting samples of underwear, socks, etc., beautifully arranged on wings. The samples had been slashed at the customhouse in the process of destroying their value. The edges had become frayed, and the samples were generally dilapidated. They were not only without salable value, but it may be questioned whether they had any real value as samples. A set of dilapidated samples such as these must make so unfavorable an impression on a prospective purchaser that only the client who is desperately in need of goods or who from previous experience has been convinced of the excellence of these goods could be expected to buy after examining them. There is no doubt that first impressions are lasting and important in matters of this nature, and that the presentation to a customer of neat, well-exhibited samples is worth much in obtaining his favorable attention from the first.

Samples may be entered without payment of duty under bond furnished by a bonded customs broker. Upon the reexportation of the samples the bond is canceled. Should it be found desirable for any reason not to reexport any of the samples, the amount leviable on such samples is collected at the time the remainder are reexported and the bond canceled. If the samples are not reexported through the customhouse at which they were entered, the bond is canceled upon presentation of a certificate of reexportation from the collector of the customhouse through which the samples are reexported. Samples admitted under bond may remain in the country for 90 days, with the possibility of an extension of 30 days upon application, after which time, if the samples have not been reexported, the import duty becomes payable.

CONSULAR REGULATIONS.[a]

Shipments to Bolivia may be made in transit via Peru, Chile, Brazil, and Argentina. Through bills of lading are not issued. Orders for goods from Bolivia should give specific instructions as to the route by which the merchandise is to be shipped, because of the fact that each route makes better connections with certain interior points than do its competitors and the improper routing of a shipment might, therefore, result in delays and additional expense.

For shipments via Mollendo, Peru, five copies of the consular invoice are required. For shipments via Arica or Antofagasta, Chile; via Para or Manaos, Brazil; or via Rosario or Buenos Aires, Argentina, four copies of the consular invoice are required. Only

[a] This section was taken from Tariff Series No. 24, Consular Regulations of Foreign Countries, issued by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

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one copy of each set of consular invoices is returned to the shipper. The others are retained by the consul or forwarded to their proper destination.

Consular invoices must be written in Spanish and must be accompanied by the bills of lading, commercial invoices, and other documents necessary to prove the actual market value of the merchandise declared. The following data must be given in the consular invoice: The name of the consignee at the place of transshipment, the name of the consignee in the city or town in Bolivia that is to be the ultimate destination of the merchandise, and the net and gross weight in kilos. If there is no customhouse at the place for which the goods are consigned, the consular invoice must designate the customhouse destination. Shipments may be consigned direct or "to order."

The following list shows the location of the Bolivian customhouses: La Paz, northern Bolivia; Oruro, central Bolivia; Villazon (La Quiaca), southern Bolivia; Puerto Suarez, eastern Bolivia; Uyuni, southwestern Bolivia; Yacuiba, southeastern Bolivia; Villa Bella, northeastern Bolivia; Cobija, northeastern Bolivia; and Manoa (Abuna), northeastern Bolivia.

Marks and numbers and net and gross weights (in kilos) should appear on all packages. Special care should be taken also to mark each package in large letters, "En transito a Bolivia" (in transit for Bolivia). This method has been adopted to expedite the landing of freight and its separation and entry in the respective warehouses or aboard ship. In view of recent trade conventions between Peru and Bolivia, the observance of this provision for marking goods in transit is very important. Packages sent via the Chilean ports of Arica or Antofagasta must be marked with a stencil, while those shipped via other ports may be marked with either a stencil or a brush.

The consular fees are as follows: For certification of set of consular invoices representing goods less than $200 in value, $3; $200 or more in value, 2 per cent; for extra copies of consular invoices, $1; for certification of bills of lading, no charge; for consular-invoice blanks, which must be purchased at the consulate, $0.90 for set of five and $0.75 for set of four.

If an error in the consular invoice is discovered by the shipper, a letter of correction, written in Spanish, may be handed to the consul, who will certify one for each copy of the invoice at a charge of $0.50 each copy. Thus, a correction of an invoice sent to Mollendo would cost $2.50 and of one sent to the other ports mentioned $2. These letters of correction must reach the Bolivian customs authorities before the goods are taken out of bond.

In addressing the consulates it is not necessary to give the full name of the consul, but merely to indicate the location for the information of the post-office authorities, as, for example, "Consulate of Bolivia, Chicago, Ill." Bolivia has the following consulates in the United States: Baltimore, Md.; Boston, Mass.; Chicago, Ill.; Kansas City, Mo.; Mobile, Ala.; New Orleans, La.; New York, N. Y.; Norfolk, Va.; Philadelphia, Pa.; San Diego, Cal.; San Francisco, Cal.

The following shows the form of the consular invoice required for shipments to Bolivia:

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FACTURA CONSULAR PARA BOLIVIA.
Consular invoice for Bolivia.

Ejemplar No. ——. No. de Factura, ——.
Copy No. No. of invoice

No. de Orden, ——.
No. of order

Destinada a la Aduana de ——— por las mercaderías que se expresan,
Destination customhouse of for merchandise described

embarcadas por ———, del puerto de ———, el ——de ——— de 19—, en
shipped by from the port of the of 19 by

el vapor ———, Capitán ——— ——— a la consignación de ——— ———, de
steamer Captain to the consignment of of

———, de orden, por cuenta y riesgo de ——— ——— de ———.
to order, and for account and risk of of

Marcas. Marks.	Números. Numbers.	Bultos. Packages.		Clasificación de la mercadería. Classification of merchandise.	Peso en kilos. Weight in kilos.		Valor parcial de la mercadería y total de la factura. Partial value of the merchandise and total amount of the invoice.	Derechos percibidos por el consulado al 2% sobre factura. Fees charged by the consulate at the rate of 2% on the invoice.
		Cantidad. Quantity.	Clase. Kind.		Bruto. Gross.	Neto. Net.		

If the price declared in the consular invoice is evidently less than the true value of the merchandise, the Government may confiscate the said merchandise, paying for it at the declared value and selling it at auction. (Par. 3, art. 16, law of Dec. 31, 1905.)

The shipper must make the following declaration on the invoice in Spanish:

Declaro (declaramos) ser verdadero el valor mencionado en esta factura.
I declare (we declare) that the value named in this invoice is the actual one.

——— ———.

FINANCING BOLIVIAN BUSINESS.

The customary terms of payment for first-class houses in Bolivia are 90 days' sight or 150 days' date draft, documents against acceptance. The shipper should draw to the order of his banker, and against the buyer, a draft for the value of the merchandise, plus all charges, such as freight, insurance, consular fees, interest, and banking charges, which have been paid by the shipper. This draft, drawn at the time the merchandise is shipped, should be forwarded to the banker, together with the documents; that is, the commercial invoice, the consular invoice, the bill of lading, and the insurance certificate. When the drawee accepts the draft the banker delivers to him the documents. Upon liquidation or payment, the banker remits to the shipper his check on New York for the value of the draft less the collection charges.

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In making shipments to firms whose standing is not well known or whose credit may not be up to the standard required by the shipper, it may be necessary or expedient not to allow credit, in which case the shipper may draw at sight, the banker delivering documents only upon payment of the draft. In making sales care should be taken that the terms of payment are carefully expressed and clearly understood by the client. Many clients in Bolivia will be found extremely sensitive; they do not like to have their documents unexpectedly retained by the bank. A failure to explain carefully the terms upon which a sale is made might result in grievously offending a valuable client and losing a desirable business relation. Losses through extension of credit to reputable firms in Bolivia are seldom experienced.

Should the shipper wish to receive remittance immediately and without awaiting the maturity of his 150 days' date or 90 days' sight draft, the banks at La Paz and other Bolivian cities will usually discount such bills immediately upon their receipt, provided they are drawn by reputable firms upon buyers favorably known to the bank. In such cases the collecting bank will remit the full value of the draft, less discount and collection charges, which, of course, the shipper will have included in his invoice and covered by the draft. Within the last two years foreign banking arrangements in the United States have greatly developed. This is particularly the case with Latin-American business, and there is keen competition among the numerous banking institutions engaged in the development of Latin-American trade. Certain banks have been organized for the sole purpose of increasing and extending trade between the United States and South America, and a number of the more important banks have organized departments exclusively for that work. Bills on reputable concerns in Bolivia can readily be discounted in American banks, the drawers thus obtaining immediately the full value of their shipments, less discount and collection charges.

Credit information is no longer difficult to obtain. In fact, there are so many sources of credit information that exporters need no longer consider the difficulty of its acquisition a hindrance to the development of export trade. Such institutions as R. G. Dun & Co., The Bradstreet Co., etc., have their correspondents in Bolivia and are in a position to report on many of the better-known Bolivian concerns. The information in the hands of these houses is being rapidly increased in volume and improved in accuracy by well-conducted correspondence. At first some Bolivian firms were surprised at the multitude and diversity of the data they were called upon to supply, but now that they have begun to reap the benefits of the system of credit information so highly developed in the United States they have changed their attitude. In visiting commercial houses in Bolivia, I have been surprised at the large number that include such institutions among the references that they are able to furnish.

Banks, both in the United States and in Bolivia, usually furnish credit information to their clients upon request. Indeed, the willingness of Bolivian banks to supply such information to commercial travelers who visit them is one of the pleasant features of trade relations in that country.

The Banco de la Nación Boliviana, the Banco Mercantil de Bo-a, and the Banco Nacional de Bolivia have main offices in La Paz

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and branches well situated to cover the country. Any of these banks is in a position to supply accurate trade information and will always supply credit information at the request of their clients or of foreign banks. The time has passed when its competitors had any considerable advantage over the United States in the matter of reliable credit information; and with the establishment of additional banks and branch banks of American nationality and with American capital, the time is rapidly approaching when no exporter in the United States need consider the difficulty of obtaining reliable trade information a handicap to his transactions with Bolivia or other South American countries.

The usual charge made for discounting foreign bills on Bolivian buyers is ¼ per cent commission and 6 per cent discount. Remittances are made at the bank rate of exchange of the day plus cable charges. For collections made of items on the city in which the bank is located the commission charge is usually one-half of 1 per cent for items less than $1,000 and one-fourth of 1 per cent for larger items, with a minimum charge of $0.50.

The rates advertised by the banks of La Paz are as follows for collections on banks in La Paz, banks in Oruro, Uyuni, Potosi, Cochabamba, and Sucre, and banks in other cities and outlying towns:

Items.	La Paz.	Oruro, Uyuni, Potosi, Cochabamba, Sucre.	Other cities and outlying towns.
Amounts of $1,000 or more.....per cent..	¼	½	1
Amounts less than $1,000.....do....	½	1	
Minimum charge.....	$0.50	$1.00	$2.50

All drafts for collection should include these charges in their face value. The banks do not usually make any extra charges of any kind. The collection charges are the same for clean and for documentary items, whether for sight or for long usance. Should protest be necessary, either for nonacceptance or for nonpayment, it costs $3.20. In forwarding items instructions should be given as to whether or not they should be protested, as the law provides a time limit within which protest must be filed, and there might be no time for seeking instructions.

FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY.

Exporters can not be overscrupulous in complying with shipping instructions with regard to routes, packing, etc. Merchandise en route to an interior city of Bolivia is necessarily transshipped several times under most adverse conditions before reaching its destination. The complaints most frequently made against goods imported from the United States have to do with packing, though improvement has been made in this regard. To give no occasion for complaint and to protect so far as possible the interests of their clients, American shippers should obey instructions literally not only with

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regard to the goods shipped, but also with regard to packing, shipping, consular invoices, customs declarations, insurance, etc.

In order to avoid transshipment on the Panama Canal, goods should be shipped, whenever possible, by steamer making the voyage direct through the canal to the port of disembarkation. When a buyer specifies the port of discharge, the goods should under no circumstances be shipped to any other port. Such a change might prove costly to the importer, not all the ports being equally well connected with any given interior point of Bolivia. Goods shipped by the Peruvian Line from Panama are likely to be transshipped at Callao before reaching Mollendo, as not all the steamers of this line call at ports south of Callao. From California and Puget Sound ports there are frequent sailings of steamers making the voyage direct to points on the west coast of South America.

INSURANCE—PRICES AND QUOTATIONS.

All goods, unless instructions are given to the contrary, should be insured against marine and war risks. Such goods as may be subject to breakage or pilfering should be further covered against breakage or robbery. As a basis for insurance the full c. i. f. value of the shipment, plus 10 per cent, should be taken. In shipping by parcel post goods that are liable to damage, it must be remembered that the United States Post Office does not insure goods through to Bolivia, but only to the American border, and that other insurance must be had for shipments of this nature.

The Bolivian importer prefers quotations c. i. f. port of discharge. The abnormal character that the war has given to foreign trade, the interference with sources of raw material, irregularity in the availability of ocean tonnage, and other untoward conditions have made it difficult for American exporters to furnish quotations that could be relied on over a long period of time. Bolivians basing their orders on old quotations have been surprised to find that in the meantime prices have risen, and in some instances they have even refused to accept merchandise upon its arrival. If American exporters are to command the confidence of the Bolivian buyer, they must scrupulously live up to the word they have given. Price lists that they have sent out are held as sacred as an agreement would be held, until canceled. Price lists not issued through an authorized representative should have a proviso protecting the exporter against fluctuations in price, and the practice of issuing such price lists should not be much indulged in.

ADVERTISING MATTER IN BOLIVIA.

Modern advertising is not highly developed in Bolivia. The success with which several commodities of American manufacture have met in this market can be traced directly to the intelligent manner in which they have been advertised. This is especially true of such articles as garters, suspenders, shirts, collars, and corsets. The American system of advertising is well adapted to La Paz and other Bolivian cities and the absence of competing advertisements makes the field relatively easy to work. Commercial travelers who desire to introduce new goods into Bolivia or goods from a source previously

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unknown in that country should bring with them a limited supply of attractive posters and other announcements suitable for use in store decoration. I once saw in an out-of-the-way store in Oruro, conducted by a Turk, a tin poster advertising a kind of American chewing gum. The proprietor of the store knew what chewing gum is and had a little in stock. The announcement was of a kind that attracted the attention of his clients and the goods sold themselves. The more frequent use of such schemes is to be encouraged.

It must be remembered, however, that the Bolivian merchant is not always convinced of the advantages to be derived from this kind of advertising, and he is rarely sufficiently interested to be willing to pay high freight rates and import taxes on posters and tags that he has not ordered. Exporters should not occasion expenses of this character to their Bolivian clients, unless there is a previous understanding. Ordinarily the exporter should bear all the expense incurred in connection with the first advertising of his goods. He should at least pay the freight on shipments of advertising material and reimburse the Bolivian importer for the import taxes on it.

The following table shows the official valuations and rates of duty on advertising matter (including catalogues) in Bolivia:

Articles.[a]	Official valuations per kilo.		Rate of duty.[b]
	Bolivianos.	United States currency.	
			Per cent.
Cardboard, tin, or brass	0.50	$0.20	15
Paper, loose or in pamphlets or books, with or without binding	1.00	.40	15
Both the above kinds with colored illustrations	1.50	.60	15
The three above kinds, with wood or cardboard frames, painted, varnished, bronzed, or not	2.50	1.00	15

[a] Articles to be used as prizes or premiums pay duty at the regular rates, according to their nature.
[b] Not including surtax of 15 per cent of the duty.

One dealer in a Bolivian city who had just received a shipment of goods from the United States discovered in one of the cases an attractive souvenir for himself, with the factory name prominently inscribed on it, of which he was very proud and which he intended using in his office. In the same case was a good collection of posters and publicity literature of an attractive character for distribution to both the wholesale and the retail trade. The box was listed in the invoice and in the bills of lading as containing advertising matter, and the importer had instructions to deduct from the amount of the invoice any expense incurred in connection with the importation of this case or to advise the exporter of the amount in order that it might be credited to his open account. The impression made by this treatment of the importer was wonderful. I am confident that he never asked for reimbursement for any expenses incurred in connection with that case of advertisements, and it was evident that he felt very well satisfied with the treatment he had received. A number of other importers pointed to their waste-paper baskets and stated that they were obliged to make considerable disbursements at every mail for excess postage on advertisements sent them from the United States.

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APPENDIXES.

APPENDIX A.—SAMPLES.

In connection with this report Commercial Attaché Montavon transmitted the following samples of wearing apparel from Bolivia, which may be examined at the New York office of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Room 734 Customhouse:

Sample 1.—Boys' suit; made in Spain; factory price f. o. b. Barcelona, 18 pesetas, c. i. f. La Paz, 18 bolivianos ($7.20), retail price at La Paz, 29 bolivianos ($11.60) per suit. Local market for about 1,000 suits annually. This sample was selected to show the very high price at which this typical garment is being retailed in La Paz.

Sample 3.—Drawers; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 28 pesetas per dozen, retail price at La Paz, 4.20 bolivianos ($1.68) per dozen. Local market for approximately 10,000 garments annually. This sample illustrates the type of underwear of moderate price most popular in Bolivia. The color is good. In better grades stripes must not be horizontal.

Sample 4.—Undershirt; made in France; cost f. o. b. Paris (1913), 28 francs ($5.40) per dozen, c. i. f. La Paz (1913), 34 bolivianos ($13.60) per dozen, retail price at La Paz, 6.50 bolivianos ($2.60) per garment (1917). Local market in 1913 for approximately 10,000 garments annually. This garment is now very scarce in La Paz, and it was stated in June, 1917, that there is a strong demand there for a garment of this quality. The sample is one left from a large stock imported in 1913 which proved unusually acceptable to the trade. The finish was much praised by the dealer.

Sample 5.—Undershirt; made in France; cost f. o. b. Paris (1913), 50 francs ($9.65) per dozen, retail price at La Paz (June, 1917), $3.20 per garment. Local market in 1913 for approximately 5,000 garments annually. This sample illustrates a color that is well received in Bolivia. The excellent finish of this garment was praised by the retailer and is said to be well liked in Bolivia.

Sample 7.—Knit suit for child; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 8 pesetas per suit, retail price at La Paz, 16 bolivianos ($6.40) per suit. Local market in 1915 for approximately 1,500 suits annually. This article finds a good market in Bolivia.

Sample 8.—Knit cape or jacket for women; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 9 pesetas each, retail price at La Paz, $12 each. This type of garment was popular, as is seen from the high retail price at which it was being successfully sold. The garment cost delivered in La Paz about $4.80. Silk sweaters from the United States were the only articles at La Paz competing with this garment in June, 1917.

Sample 9.—Knit jacket for women; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 9 pesetas per garment, retail price at La Paz, 25 bolivianos ($10) per garment. Local market for approximately 1,000 garments annually. This color is well liked in Bolivia, where many women wear brown as a religious color, brown being the color worn by members of the third order of Saint Francis. The sample is good as to color and finish. The high price at which this garment was being retailed, as compared with its import cost, is evidence of its popularity in La Paz and of the absence of any effective competition.

Sample 10.—Knit jacket for women; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 10 pesetas per garment, retail price at La Paz, 28 bolivianos ($11.20) per garment. Local market for approximately 1,000 garments annually. This type of heavy knit jacket is exceptionally salable in all parts of Bolivia.

Sample 11.—Knit jacket for women; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 10 pesetas per garment, retail price at La Paz, $11 per garment. Local market for approximately 1,000 garments annually. This black type is much worn.

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Sample 12.—Woolen jacket; made in France; cost f. o. b. Paris, 9 francs per garment, retail price at La Paz, 22 bolivianos ($8.80) per garment. Local market for approximately 2,000 garments annually. This garment is a very good seller all over Bolivia. The homes are not heated, and this little jacket is much worn, especially in the evening. This garment should change with the fashion, and may be made quite ornamental.

Sample 14.—Neckties (3); made in Italy; cost f. o. b. Genoa, 22 lire ($4.25) per dozen, retail price at La Paz, 34 bolivianos ($13.60) per dozen. This type of silk tie is a good seller. Note the lining, which places them in a customs class that pays a low rate, and, being scant, does not unnecessarily increase the gross weight. The colors are good.

Sample 17.—Socks; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona (1913), 13 pesetas ($2.34) per dozen, retail price at La Paz (1917), 2.20 bolivianos ($0.88) per pair. Local market for approximately 1,500 annually. The embroidery is good for the Bolivian market.

Sample 19.—Socks; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 6 pesetas per dozen, retail price at La Paz, 10 bolivianos ($4) per dozen. Local market in 1916 for approximately 50,000 annually. This very cheap sock finds a good market in Bolivia. Note good finish in spite of low price.

Sample 20.—Puttees (Alpine); made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 36 pesetas per dozen, retail price at La Paz, 8 bolivianos ($3.20) per pair. Local market in 1916 for approximately 500 annually. This sample is said to be typical of the puttee most in demand in Bolivia.

Sample 21.—Cap; homemade in Bolivia; retail price at La Paz, 0.30 boliviano ($0.12) each. These caps are universally worn by the Indians of the altiplanicie, and it is believed that a market for a factory-made substitute could easily be developed. The samples illustrate the popular colors and designs; note the llama design.

Sample 22.—Sleeves; made in Bolivia; retail price at La Paz, 1 boliviano ($0.40) each. This sample illustrates the crudeness of the wearing apparel worn by the Bolivian Indians.

Sample 24.—Shoulder covering; made in Bolivia; retail price at La Paz, 4 bolivianos ($1.60) each. These samples were selected to illustrate colors liked by Indians in Bolivia. It is believed that a factory-made substitute for this garment would be a good seller.

Sample 25.—Hat; made in Bolivia and Peru; retail price at La Paz, $0.16 each. This sample is a good illustration of the primitive conditions that prevail among the Indians of the altiplanicie. A low flat hat could be introduced as a substitute.

Sample 26.—Trousers of cottonade; made in Bolivia; retail price at La Paz, 3 bolivianos ($1.20) per pair. This is the type of trousers worn by several hundred thousand men in Bolivia. At the prices charged, a factory-made substitute could be introduced.

Sample 27.—Gray-goods shirt; made in Bolivia; retail price at La Paz, 1.50 bolivianos ($0.60) each. This sample illustrates the type of shirt worn by the great majority of men in Bolivia.

Sample 28.—Gray-goods drawers; made in Bolivia; retail price at La Paz, 1.50 bolivianos ($0.60) per garment. This sample illustrates the crude garments sold to the Bolivian laborer. A factory-made substitute with a good finish would succeed.

Sample 29.—Shawl; made in Bolivia; retail price at La Paz, 12 bolivianos ($4.80) each. This garment is worn by many thousands of women in Bolivia, under the larger and more fancy shawls by the well-dressed, and serves as a bag in which to carry the baby when the ends are pinned under the chin of the wearer. There is a large market for a factory substitute.

Sample 30.—Poncho; made in Bolivia; retail price at La Paz, 35 bolivianos ($14) each. This sample shows the tendency in colors. There is a very large market for factory-made ponchos in Bolivia.

Sample 32.—Woolen socks; made in Peru; retail price at Julaiaca, $0.35 per pair. This is the type of sock worn by many thousands of men and women in the altiplanicie. It illustrates the tendency in colors.

Sample 33.—Woolen socks; made in Peru; retail price at La Paz, $0.25 per pair. This type of sock is worn almost universally in the Bolivian altiplanicie.

Sample 34.—Shirt; made in Bolivia; factory price f. o. b. La Paz, 36 bolivianos ($14.40) per dozen, retail price at La Paz, $1.50 per shirt. This is the type of shirt most frequently ordered from La Paz shirt factories.

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Sample 35.—Handkerchiefs; country of origin not stated; retail price at La Paz, 2.50 bolivianos ($1) per half-dozen. This type of handkerchief is very popular all over Bolivia.

Sample 36.—Gloves; made in Germany; retail price at La Paz, $1.40 per pair. The type and quality are standard. Gloves of this sort are very much in demand in Bolivia at present, since the German supply has been discontinued.

Sample 38.—Crochet cotton; made in Germany; retail price in La Paz, 2.50 bolivianos ($1) per box. The stock of this kind of thread was entirely exhausted in La Paz in June, 1917. There is a strong demand for a substitute.

Sample 40.—Cuffs; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 8 pesetas per dozen, retail price at La Paz, 1 boliviano ($0.40) per pair. This is the standard cuff in Bolivia.

Sample 41.—Collar; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 6 pesetas per dozen, retail price at La Paz, 10 bolivianos ($4) per dozen. This collar is standard in every sense, especially as to height, in Bolivia.

Sample 42.—Lawn shirt waist; made in France; cost f. o. b. Paris, 6 francs ($1.16) each, retail price at La Paz, 12 bolivianos ($4.80) each. This is one of the best sellers.

Sample 43.—Shirt waist; made in France; cost f. o. b. Paris, 3.20 francs ($0.62) each, retail price at La Paz, 8 bolivianos ($3.20) each. This is also a very good seller; proper style, quality, etc.

Sample 44.—Morning jacket of Pyrenese wool; made in France; cost f. o. b. Paris, 18 francs ($3.47) per garment, retail price at La Paz, 34 bolivianos ($13.60) per garment. This garment is almost universally worn by the better-class Bolivian women.

Sample 45.—Boys' suit; made in Spain; cost f. o. b. Barcelona, 11 pesetas per suit, retail price at La Paz, 18 bolivianos ($7.20) per suit. Selected because of style of collar used.

APPENDIX B.—TRADE LIST.

A list of firms in Bolivia that are interested in wearing apparel may be obtained from the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce or its district or cooperative offices. Inquirers should refer to file No. 2655.

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 70

THE CONDUCT OF BUSINESS WITH CHINA

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, January 2, 1919.

SIR: There is submitted herewith a pamphlet prepared in the far eastern division of this Bureau, which deals primarily with the methods by which business with China, both commercial and financial, is best carried on. This pamphlet is intended to serve as an introduction to a general study of Chinese commercial conditions, which will be covered in considerable detail in the handbook on China that has been prepared by Commercial Attaché Julean Arnold and will be issued during the present year. Economic conditions in that country are in many respects unique, and the American manufacturer or investor who is interested in them is usually confronted with practical difficulties, which have given rise to a large number of inquiries addressed to the Bureau. The selection of material for this publication is largely based on experience with such inquiries. A limited amount of space, however, is devoted to a concise description of the general characteristics of trade and investment in China.

The information, especially with regard to travel conditions, passports, etc., unless distinctly stated otherwise, is based on normal conditions. At the same time efforts have been made to point out changes that have been caused by the war.

Respectfully,

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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THE CONDUCT OF BUSINESS WITH CHINA.

GEOGRAPHIC FEATURES AFFECTING COMMERCE.

For commercial purposes it is convenient to divide China into two great regions, one consisting of the southern and the other of the central and northern parts of the country. The former includes the basin of the West River and the latter the basins of the Yangtze and the Yellow Rivers. These latter two basins form a distinct commercial region, this being due to the fact that they are not separated by high mountains, that the northern section is not well supplied with first-class deep-water ports, and that the Yellow River is not navigable by craft of any considerable size. The Yangtze and the West River Basins, on the other hand, are divided from one another, except along the coast, by rugged highlands.

The southern region in general is mildly tropical and damp, but with many sudden variations due to its geographical situation and its ruggedness. The central or Yangtze Valley is generally subtropical and damp, not unlike our Gulf coast region, but with a rather cold winter. The northern region is temperate, most of it having a short, hot, and rainy summer and a long, cold, dry, and dusty winter. Northern Manchuria has a climate like that of the Canadian border States, but with much less snow. Peking is about in the latitude of Philadelphia; Shanghai in that of Jacksonville, Fla.; and Hongkong in that of Habana. No part of China is extremely unhealthful for the white race, though the climate in the warmer south tends to be debilitating.

PORTS OPEN TO FOREIGN TRADE.

The cities of China that serve as ports of entry for foreign trade were originally designated for that purpose by treaty, and are therefore known as treaty ports. Technically they are also the only places in which foreigners, other than missionaries, can reside without special permission from the Chinese Government. In recent years new ports have been opened voluntarily. There are now 48 treaty ports in addition to several landing places on the West River and a number of places in the frontier Provinces that are open to foreign residence and trade without being ports of entry.

As interior transportation has improved, trade has tended to concentrate at a very few of the treaty ports. During the years 1915 and 1916 an average of 72 per cent of the imports into China entered at Shanghai, Hankow, Tientsin, and a group of ports in the Canton delta, which receive their goods mainly from Hongkong. Forty per cent of the imports came in at Shanghai alone. The principal delta ports are Canton and Kowloon, on the mainland opposite Hongkong.

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Dairen and Tsingtau are ports under Japanese control that have been built up artificially and serve mainly Japanese trade, although direct trade between Dairen and the United States, chiefly in beans, was initiated before the war. A number of the treaty ports are important local centers, without having much direct foreign trade, except those in northern China and Manchuria, which have important relations with Japan. Such are Newchwang and Antung, in southern Manchuria; Chefoo, on the Shantung Peninsula; Nanking, Ichang, and Chungking, on the Yangtze; Changsha, on a tributary of the Yangtze; Foochow, Amoy, and Swatow, on the coast between Shanghai and Hongkong; and Wuchow and Nanning, on the West River.

It is important to remember that Hongkong is a British colony. Consequently its trade is not covered in the official publications of the Chinese Government or in others which confine themselves to China proper. On a geographical and economic basis, however, Hongkong is in every respect a part of China and this fact should be remembered especially in consulting statistics of imports and exports.

As previously stated, the direct import trade of China and a large part of the export trade center in Shanghai and Hongkong. The two ports are not to any considerable extent in direct competition, Shanghai serving northern China and Hongkong southern China. On the coast the dividing line between the two regions is about at the city of Foochow, which has been a commercial outpost of Hongkong, but is now becoming more dependent on Shanghai.

CHINESE PRODUCTS EXPORTED TO AMERICA.

American purchases from China consist mainly of raw materials. The characteristic Chinese manufactures, such as silk fabrics, porcelain, matting, and fireworks, though better known to the general public in this country than most of the raw materials, have never constituted a very important part of the total trade. There is now a modern factory industry in China of considerable and growing importance, but this will not fully supply home demands for many years. In recent years exports of tea and silk have become relatively less important, mainly because of a falling off in quality, while increasing requirements for raw materials in the United States have led to the importation from China of many new articles, most important of which are soya beans and oil, peanuts and peanut oil, miscellaneous oils and oil seeds (such as wood, sesamum, rape, and tea), hides and skins, wool, hair, bristles, feathers, straw braid, vegetable tallow, drugs, game, egg products, tin, and antimony.

MARKET OPPORTUNITIES FOR AMERICAN GOODS.

Although a large proportion of the goods bought by China are still of low grade, they are constantly becoming more varied in character. The fact that an article has not yet been sold in China does not mean that there is no opening for it. The most important classes of imports, in the order of their value in 1916, are cotton textiles, cotton yarn, sugar, rice, cigarettes, kerosene oil, railroad supplies, fish and fishery products, partly manufactured iron and steel, paper, coal, leather, matches, medicines, clothing, machinery, dyes, colors and

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paints, electrical machinery and supplies, bags, tobacco, glass and glassware, hosiery, miscellaneous chemicals, soap and soap-making materials, nails and rivets, and umbrellas.

The following summary indicates what are probably the best opportunities for American products: (1) In staple manufactures, such as cotton goods, our market is mainly limited to certain of the better grades. (2) In the case of a few raw materials and partly manufactured goods the abundance of American resources gives us a good share under normal conditions; among these are mineral-oil products, iron and steel products and lumber. (3) In a few important lines, notably machinery, the demand for which is rapidly increasing, we have a fair share, which can be made much larger by the right kind of introduction work. (4) In a great variety of specialties, for which the market is more or less limited, but which can be sold in increasing quantities at good profits, American goods have an excellent chance when backed up by proper selling methods.

The relative importance of the commodities in the last two classes should be clearly understood by the American manufacturer. Not only does he have in these his best chance to meet foreign competition under present conditions, but the import trade of China in these commodities is slowly but very perceptibly growing. Americans should be prepared to apply the remark made in a recent special edition of a Hongkong paper: "If we can not now supply China with [illegible] as formerly, we can supply her with the machines to make it; and if a generation hence China is in a position to make hosiery machines, then it may be taken for granted that the country will be so generally developed that she will require an increasing amount of a thousand and one other things."

Many articles in the last-named class are not imported in quantities sufficient to cause mention of them in trade reviews, and the extent of the market can be determined only by experiment or by inquiry on the ground. Recent consular reports, however, indicate the probability of good markets for motor vehicles, canned goods, condensed milk, drugs and medicines, paints, phonographs, toilet supplies, window glass, electrical supplies, office supplies, typewriters, photographic supplies, certain classes of hardware, leather, heating and sanitary apparatus, small marine engines, and knitting, sewing, and mining machinery. This list is in no sense exhaustive.

Owing to its immense population a relatively small per capita demand in China means, in fact, a considerable market for imported goods. The significance of China as a market lies in the potential increase of the purchasing power of its population. Even with its present purchasing power, the population is so great that an article which in China would come within the means of only one-seventh as great a percentage of the people as in South America, would still find the same number of purchasers as in the whole of the latter continent. Despite the undeniable poverty there is a great deal of latent wealth that can be brought out by the right sort of appeal, and there are few important commodities for which a demand can not be created in China with time and proper methods.

Social and economic conditions are so uniform throughout China that there is little variation in the demand for imported goods in

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different parts of the country. However, the people of southern China are rather more progressive and have a greater purchasing power, and the climate also affects the nature of the trade.

If a manufacturer produces goods that he wishes to market in China and lacks information as to the likelihood of their finding a sale, he should write to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C., which will promptly supply him with all the data available in that office, and if further information is necessary, the inquiry will be referred to China under conditions that will insure securing information from authoritative sources in as short a time as possible.

CHINA AS AN INVESTMENT FIELD.

China is a foreign investment field of the first order. Investments are more closely connected with the expansion of purely commercial enterprises in this than in most other countries. For example, there are lines in which Americans can not sucessfully compete by handling their home-manufactured products, but which it would be profitable to manufacture in China. Most of the demand for railroad and construction supplies and a large part of the demand for machinery develop from the investment of foreign capital, and purchases are usually made from the investing country. The inadvisability of relying upon legal proceedings for collections from Chinese customers also often makes it desirable for importers to assist in financing debtors whose remissness is not the result of dishonesty, and such investments, though unsought, are often profitable.

The prejudice that formerly existed in China against foreign investments as such has disappeared with the selection of enterprises and methods showing consideration for Chinese interests and the exercise of tact in dealing with the people.

Most of the openings for investments in China may be grouped in the following classes:

(1) Large-scale public utilities, usually involving what are popularly known as "concessions." These are chiefly railroads, though canal and river conservancy work, port works, etc., are also taken up. In considering new projects of this class the fact that certain parts of China have been claimed as spheres of influence by European powers and Japan must be borne in mind. These enterprises are usually financed by floating Chinese Government bonds in the countries of the companies which undertake them, the title of ownership to the completed work remaining with the Chinese Government, and actual construction work is carried out by a foreign engineering concern. The bonds are secured by the receipts of the enterprise itself and sometimes also by general tax revenues. The financing company ordinarily receives a commission on expenditures for supplies and sometimes a percentage of the receipts of operation. In the case of railroads, separate operating contracts are often made with the construction concerns. Effective accounting control by the foreign interests is provided for, making a default on the bonds unlikely; in fact, such a thing has been unknown, though there have been some cases of delay. The war has caused the suspension of work on a number of projects of this class, and it is unlikely that more will be financed before the conclusion of peace. There is, however, an oppor-

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tunity for investigation and preparatory work in connection with future projects.

(2) Public utilities on a smaller scale, which are becoming more and more numerous in China, and which have not, on the whole, been adversely affected by the war. Except in the foreign concessions and settlements, they are generally financed by private Chinese capital. When foreign capital is interested, the project is usually handled by a local banking house and there is no special bond issue. Chinese provincial governments and municipalities do not issue bonds suitable for foreign investment. In foreign concessions and settlements, investments of this class are usually limited to the nationality in political control.

(3) Development of mineral resources, which involves an immense field for foreign capital, the extent of which is imperfectly known. Existing laws require that half the capital in mining enterprises shall be of Chinese origin, and investment under conditions that permit a safe degree of foreign accounting control is thus quite difficult. There is little probability that these laws will be modified in the near future.

(4) Openings for investment in manufacturing enterprises, which are increasing in number, variety, and financial importance. Most of the foreign capital for such purposes is at present subscribed locally or through the medium of local trading and investment houses. Capitalists contemplating direct investment should make a careful preliminary investigation of the project on the ground. The products of Chinese industries include egg products, canned goods, cement, bricks, chemicals, cotton goods, beverages and aerated waters, wheat flour, furniture, glass and porcelain, ice, iron and steel, leather, matches, vegetable oils, paper, rope, lumber, silk yarn and fabrics, soap, candles, brick and tablet tea, and woolen goods.

(5) The local handling of export and import trade in China, which involves an amount of capital that is often overlooked. The chief reasons for such investment are the heavy fluctuations in exchange and the desirability of making subsidiary investments and financing Chinese customers. New investments in this line should be made only after suitable investigation.

OCEAN SHIPPING ROUTES AND SERVICES.

In normal times goods are shipped from the United States to China from California and Puget Sound ports via the Pacific ocean, or from Atlantic coast ports via the Panama or the Suez Canal. The Suez route is now impracticable, and the route via the Cape of Good Hope is occasionally substituted. A majority of sailings are from New York, San Francisco, and Seattle. The following statement gives the average time that goods are in transit by the principal routes, though the present unsettled conditions make it inadvisable to place too great dependence upon figures of the kind:

New York to Hongkong:	
Via Suez	58 days.
Via Pacific	46 days.
San Francisco or Seattle to Hongkong	40 days.
New York to Shanghai:	
Via Suez	62 days.
Via Pacific	43 days.
San Francisco or Seattle to Shanghai	37 days.

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Direct connections with China ports are limited, with occasional exceptions, to Shanghai and Hongkong; and under present conditions it is frequently necessary, in shipping via Japanese lines on the Pacific, to transship at Kobe. In normal times through bills of lading can generally be taken out for any port in China that does an appreciable amount of direct foreign trade.

Shipping conditions are now so unsettled that it would be misleading to include in this publication a list of lines, and still more misleading to give sailing schedules or freight rates. Current information on shipping facilities is available in such publications as the Exporter's Encyclopedia (annual, with monthly corrections). For more specific information, especially with regard to freight rates, inquiry should be made of shipping agents. In any important city such information can always be secured from or through the agents of the transcontinental railroads.

STATUS OF FOREIGN RESIDENTS AND BUSINESS HOUSES.

Foreigners engaged in business can maintain permanent residence and own real property in the treaty ports only. This restriction is fully enforced as to real estate, but not always as to leaseholds. As regards residence and travel there has been some relaxation in practice. Foreigners freely reside in and visit Peking, which is not a treaty port, and the traveling foreign inspectors of the larger trading concerns have really become resident foreign agents in many interior towns.

PASSPORTS AND INTERIOR TRAVEL.

Although passports are not now demanded as a matter of practice on the main rail and steamer routes, the Chinese authorities retain the right to insist on them. American passports are a necessity under war conditions, and even in normal times they should be carried by business travelers who expect to stay in China for some time or to go off the beaten track. Information with regard to American passports can be obtained from the Bureau of Citizenship of the State Department, Washington, D. C. In Hongkong (a British colony) and in the leased territories (see p. 14) there are now, as a rule, drastic regulations with regard to passports, permits to depart, etc., and these are subject to change frequently and at short notice. Travelers intending to visit these places should write a week or two in advance to the local American consulates for information with regard to documents, etc.

EXTERRITORIALITY.

All subjects of the treaty powers in China enjoy exterritoriality—that is, the right of having cases affecting their persons and property tried by judicial officers representing their own Governments. These officers are usually consuls, but Great Britain and the United States have established regular courts to try all important cases. The United States Court for China has its headquarters in Shanghai, but holds regular sessions in three other cities, and may sit, if necessary, in any open port. It applies the Federal statute law. Appeals lie in most cases to the Federal district court of California. Arrests of foreigners

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may be made by any police officer, but the accused must be turned over to the custody of his own Government as soon as practicable.

Exterritoriality does not apply to the leased territories or to Hongkong, where the local courts have sole jurisdiction.

Cases in which the defendants are Chinese go to the Chinese courts. In Shanghai trials in such cases are held in what is commonly known as a "mixed court," in which assessors representing the foreign consuls sit with the Chinese magistrates. Foreigners freely bring cases, especially those of a minor character, before these tribunals. Elsewhere the extent to which consular representatives shall be permitted to take part in the proceedings of Chinese courts when their nationals are bringing suit has been the subject of controversy, but very recently an arrangement has been effected that puts these cases on substantially the same footing as in Shanghai. Many collection cases brought by foreigners have been tried in this manner, especially in Shanghai, and considerable amounts of money have been recovered, but generally foreigners dealing with Chinese business houses should not depend on litigation to enforce their claims.

The right to exterritoriality has no connection with the treaty ports and is in no way limited to them. Americans residing in China should register at the consulate for the district. Although this is not necessary to secure their legal rights, it is sometimes of advantage and serves as an excellent means of identification in business transactions.

INCORPORATION OF COMPANIES.

China now has corporation laws, but lack of confidence in their administration, combined with the fact that foreign corporations as well as persons enjoy exterritoriality, tends to dissuade foreigners from organizing under them. The laws themselves do not discriminate against foreigners as such, except in the case of mining enterprises (see p. 11). A foreign corporation can not, of course, own land outside a treaty port, but this has not been a matter of much moment except in the mining and inland shipping industries.

A foreign firm in China proper consequently incorporates under its own national laws, though many British corporations and a considerable number of Chinese are organized under the laws of Hongkong. There is no United States law of incorporation for China, though the drafting of one is under consideration, and American corporations ordinarily do business under their State charters. These are usually registered at the consulate for the district in which the firms are to do business, although such registration does not affect the legal status of the companies.

Hongkong, as noted above, has its own incorporation laws, which are extensively used for the organization of business to be carried on in other parts of China.

The establishment of large-scale industries within treaty port limits has become difficult in recent years, owing to congestion and the increasing cost of sites. This problem may be solved to some extent by the organization of companies under part Chinese ownership, making it possible to locate outside the treaty ports under special charters or concessions. Most of the Japanese mining concerns in China and a few of other nationalities are organized in this manner. British and American capital, however, has not been inclined to look favorably on such arrangements.

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AREAS UNDER FOREIGN POLITICAL CONTROL.

The term "treaty port" itself does not imply any foreign political control, and in a majority of the ports such control is limited to a certain degree of self-government by the permanent foreign residents or of administration by their consuls. There are, however, several classes of civil divisions in China that are under foreign control.

(1) Hongkong may, for convenience, be classed as under foreign control, though it is a British colony and not a part of China politically.

LEASED TERRITORIES.

(2) Leased territories are under the complete control of foreign governments by terms of leases that have many years to run. The leased territories of commercial importance are the Kwantung, or Liaotung, Peninsula in Manchuria, in which Dairen (or Dalny) and Port Arthur are situated; Kiaochow, which is in Shantung Province and contains the former German port of Tsingtau; and Kowloon, which is on the mainland opposite Hongkong and for commercial purposes is a part of the latter. Kowloon is under British control, while the Japanese control Kwantung and Kiaochow. Dairen and Tsingtau are both practically treaty ports, though the former is itself a free port and the latter contains a free zone. The local consumption of imports in these zones is comparatively unimportant, and the regular Chinese customs duties are levied on goods passing through them to the interior. The trade connections of both are almost exclusively Japanese, and neither is of great importance to American interests. The treaty port through which the trade of Tsingtau passes is nominally located at Kiaochow, a small Chinese city about 30 miles distant and outside the leased territory, and the official statistics relating to this trade appear under that head.

RAILWAY AREAS.

(3) Certain areas adjoining the rights of way and including the settlements near the stations of the South Manchuria, the Chinese Eastern, and the Shantung Railways are under the direct political control of foreign countries. The Japanese exercise such control with respect to the South Manchuria and the Shantung Railways, and the Russians have similar control in connection with the Chinese Eastern Railway. These areas include the important commercial sections of the cities of Mukden, Harbin,[1] Changchun, and Antung. The degree of control is ill defined and has given rise to much controversy.

FOREIGN CONCESSIONS.

(4) The foreign concessions are small areas within treaty ports that have been set apart for the residence of foreigners. The term is sometimes loosely given to areas to which it does not strictly apply; but as ordinarily used it includes the French and British areas at Canton; the British, French, Russian, Japanese, and for-

[1] Unsettled conditions have recently led to the resumption of Chinese administrative control in the Russian town of Harbin, and the future of the whole Chinese Eastern Railway area is uncertain.

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merly German, at Hankow; the British, French, Russian, Japanese, Italian, Belgian, and formerly German and Austrian, at Tientsin; and a very few others, mainly British, at less important places.

In all of these areas the sovereignty remains with the Chinese Government, which also retains the right to a fixed land tax, usually paid by the ground owners through their consuls. The nature and permanence of the political control exercised by the foreign governments varies with the terms of the treaties by which the concessions were set apart. The local administrations vary widely in character. The British concessions have practically complete municipal self-government, while the others are mainly under consular control.

INTERNATIONAL SETTLEMENTS.

(5) International settlements constitute a small and peculiar class of foreign-controlled areas. They are, for most administrative purposes, self-governed by the permanent foreign owners and occupiers of real estate, but they are under the supervision of the local consular bodies. Such settlements are found at Shanghai and Amoy; the former is much the more important, having been constituted in 1863 by a union of formerly existing British and American reserved areas of a special kind. A French reserved area, which is mainly residential, was originally delimited at the same time, but declined to enter the union, and has since been treated by the French authorities as a separate concession, though this status has never been formally recognized. When the city of Shanghai is referred to in a commercial sense, the International Settlement is invariably meant. British interests predominate in the government of the Settlement, but there is American, Japanese, and Russian representation on the municipal council.

(6) Some of the minor treaty ports not already mentioned have regular reserved areas for foreigners and others do not. At a few, like Chefoo, the foreign residents have for a long time conducted an informal international municipal government. At some of the newer treaty ports special arrangements for a certain degree of foreign self-government were made when they were opened; at others, which were opened by the Chinese Government on its own initiative, Chinese municipal administrations were provided for the reserved areas.

GENERAL CONDITIONS IN FOREIGN-CONTROLLED AREAS.

The various concessions and settlements have had to compete for business by establishing a reputation for good government, public improvements, and reasonable taxation. This tends to a general uniformity of administration, though there are minor inconveniences involved in such matters as the taking out of licenses. Ownership of real estate, especially of the best sites, is sometimes restricted to the nationality in immediate control.

So far as the conduct of commercial business is concerned, the foreign-controlled areas just described comprise the only parts of most of the treaty ports that are of commercial importance. However, the question of the right of foreigners to reside or to do business elsewhere in the ports has arisen in several instances and has caused much controversy. The term "treaty port" is not clearly defined.

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Foreign governments, including that of the United States, have generally understood the term to include any part of the native cities named, while the Chinese Government has desired to restrict it to the concessions and other reserved areas.

In Canton, where the reserved areas are small and congested, and in many other places where sites are desired for both residences and industrial plants, the Chinese interpretation is protested against. In Shanghai the Chinese authorities have given tacit consent to the extension of foreign owned or controlled property beyond the reserved areas originally conceded.

TAXES AND CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Aside from customs duties and likin charges and some minor dues collected by the maritime customs to defray the cost of river conservancy, port works, and aids to navigation, the taxation affecting foreigners in China is mainly of two classes:

(1) Local and municipal taxes in Hongkong and the leased territories, concessions, and international settlements. These are too varied to be described in detail. Competition between the various foreign municipal areas prevents their becoming burdensome. The bulk of the local revenues is raised by taxes on real property, owned and occupied; and beyond these there are few imposts of importance, except the usual fees for licenses or for services rendered, and in some cases dues on merchandise.

(2) Taxes imposed by foreign governments, which extend to their nationals resident in China. In the case of Americans these include the Federal income, corporation, partnership, and excess-profits taxes.

The question of payment of Chinese taxes by foreigners does not often arise. The land tax, the principal source of Chinese revenue, is generally imposed in the concessions and international settlements at a rate fixed by treaty, and the owners, or in some cases the lessees, of the land pay it through their consuls. In no case is the rate high. Few other Chinese taxes are applicable to foreigners. Within the last few years a documentary stamp tax has been imposed, amounting to about one-tenth of 1 per cent on the value of negotiable paper, but the payment of this has been successfully refused by foreigners. The status of this question under the treaties, however, is open to discussion, and it is unlikely that foreigners will be permanently exempt from such taxes.

IMPORT AND EXPORT TARIFF.

The Chinese tariff is unique in that it is prescribed as a whole in a joint treaty with the principal foreign powers. This makes it necessary for the Chinese Government to obtain the consent of the signatory powers in order to make any change. The existing system dates from the treaties of Tientsin in 1858, and there has been no complete revision since that time. Unusual conditions have made this system peculiar in several respects.

Duties are levied on exports as well as imports, and nominally at the same rates. The Chinese Government is beginning to recognize that this is not beneficial to trade, but the duties are not high enough to be very burdensome and the need of revenue stands in the way of change. A few removals and reductions in order to stimulate

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certain industries have already been made with the tacit consent of the powers. These articles include tea, straw braid, lace, hair nets, and preserved fruit and ginger.

Duties are levied not only on foreign imports and exports but also, under certain conditions, on goods passing from one treaty port to another. Thus, an article produced in Shanghai and sent to Tientsin must pay both an export and a 2½ per cent ad valorem import duty, the latter under the name of a "coast-trade" duty. An article imported into Shanghai from abroad pays an import duty, but may be exported free at any time within three years and reimported into any other treaty port, or to any wharf on the Yangtze River, without further payment. This involves an extra burden on native goods, which, however, is modified by two things.

First, domestic factory products, including those manufactured with foreign capital, may be sent to any part of the country free from all further taxation upon the payment of what is commonly known as an "excise," equal to the original import duty on foreign goods of the same class. Complicating factors make it hard to compute the degree to which this excise protects manufactured goods of native origin.

NATIVE CUSTOMS AND LIKIN CHARGES.

Second, the system of interport duties is not all-inclusive, as a great volume of domestic trade does not come under the jurisdiction of the maritime customs. All goods transported by steam vessels and what are known as "chartered junks"[1] come under the maritime customs system, while those conveyed by other means, with some special exceptions, are subject to the dues collected by the "native" or "regular" customs and to the likin (internal taxes on goods in transit). Goods under the jurisdiction of the maritime customs escape the native customs charges altogether, and by the payment of transit dues are relieved from the likin.

The importance of the distinction between different means of transportation arises mainly from the fact that railroad freight traffic, except on one or two lines, has not yet been brought under the control of the maritime customs. Foreign goods that for any reason are not protected by a customs "pass" are consequently subject to the native customs charges, or to the likin, or to both, when in transit by rail.

At the gate of Peking, just by the railroad station, there is an additional duty imposed, amounting as a rule to about 3 per cent ad valorem, which is generally known as the "Peking octroi" and which is distinct from both the native customs dues and the likin.

PROHIBITED ARTICLES.

With few exceptions the treaties stipulate unrestricted trade in all classes of goods. Salt is a Government monopoly, and its commercial importation is forbidden. The importation of opium and its de-

[1] "Chartered," in this sense, means registered with the customs, and "junk" means any vessel of Chinese model.

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rivatives is also illegal, and importation of firearms and explosives is prohibited without a special permit. Sporting arms and ammunition may be imported under certain restrictions, but explosives for industrial purposes may not. This is a serious handicap on mining and construction work.

RATES OF DUTIES.

In principle, a uniform rate of 5 per cent ad valorem is prescribed for all duties. To simplify the collections, however, the ad valorem duties on the articles that made up the bulk of Chinese trade in 1858 were converted into specific duties on the basis of the prices ruling at that time. The export valuations have never been modified, and the import valuations were changed only once (in 1902), when they were revised on the basis of the average prices for the period 1897–1899.

Changes in prices have resulted in rates quite different from the theoretical level of 5 per cent; but this has led to practical difficulties only in the case of imports. The duties collected on imports in 1917 averaged about 3½ per cent ad valorem, and much-needed revenue has been lost thereby. It is the reform of this condition that is meant when a revision of the Chinese tariff "to an effective 5 per cent" is referred to. Such a revision has been agreed upon, and an international conference has been sitting in Shanghai in 1918 to work it out.

The preliminary work of the conference was difficult on account of differences of opinion as to the years to be selected in determining the new valuations. In order to give the Chinese Government as nearly as possible the full 5 per cent ad valorem guaranteed by treaty, it would be necessary to select the most recent years, during which war prices have ruled; but this would necessitate another revision when prices began to fall after the war. As a compromise the years from 1912 to 1916 have been selected, and the average of the prices ruling for those years determines the new valuations.

In the case of goods for which no valuations are prescribed the c. i. f. invoice value, if the goods have been sold to local purchasers on such terms, is taken as the valuation for customs purposes. If the sale includes the duty and other charges, about 11 per cent is deducted from this price to obtain the customs valuation. If there has been no local sale and any dispute as to the valuation arises, the question is referred to a board of arbitration consisting of a customs officer, a merchant selected by the importer's consul, and a merchant of some other nationality selected by the dean of the local consular body. On account of the system of extraterritoriality, it is not possible for the Chinese customs authorities to enforce their rulings against foreigners by judicial procedure.

The question of assenting to the increase of the Chinese customs duties above 5 per cent has long been discussed, and the United States and Great Britain both gave their consent some 15 years ago to a rate of 12½ per cent, contingent on the abolishment of the "likin." This condition has never been met, though progressive Chinese opinion now generally recognizes the desirability of the reform.

Recently the financial authorities of the Province of Kiangsu (in which Shanghai is situated) are stated to have substituted for [illegible] a single tax on merchandise; but the details of the new [illegible]ent are obscure, and, until the fiscal system of the country

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has been reorganized, there must remain a good deal of doubt as to the practical effects of any such change.

MODIFIED APPLICATION OF DUTIES.

There are certain further modifications in the application of the 5 per cent rate of duty:

(1) Duties on goods coming in over the land frontiers of China are reduced by one-third. This is of commercial importance chiefly in the case of goods (mostly Japanese) entering by rail from Chosen, and to a less extent in the case of goods passing over the Siberian frontier.

(2) In order to avoid complications from the levying of likin charges on goods entering into foreign trade, such goods are exempted from likin charges by the payment of an extra duty of 2½ per cent ad valorem, under the name of the inward and outward transit tax, in the case of imports and exports, respectively. This protects imports until they reach their destination. The privilege is taken advantage of for imports more than for exports, though even in the case of imports the likin is sometimes paid by preference. The transit-pass system has been a great advantage to the foreign trade of China; but it has not prevented many controversies, resulting mainly from attempts of the local authorities to levy what are known as "destination taxes" on foreign goods after arrival at their destination. These taxes are held by foreign nations, including the United States, to be contrary to treaty stipulations, and are always protested, usually with the result of the withdrawal of that particular tax, without prejudicing the alleged right to impose it in other instances.

GENERAL PROCEDURE IN COLLECTION OF DUTIES.

The greater part of the duties that affect the foreign trade of China are collected by the Chinese Maritime Customs, the head and higher officials of which are foreigners.

The berthing of vessels in Chinese ports is under the control of the harbormaster, while the examination of the cargo and the supervision of loading and discharging are handled by the tide surveyor's office. The collection of duties is administered by a general office, with a chief clerk, whose office is known as the "head desk." The various other departments are also referred to as "desks."

Imports are cleared by making out an import application, which is handed in with the bills of lading or delivery order, countersigned by the agents of the importing vessel. The examination ordinarily follows, but it is waived when the invoice and a copy of the original contract can be submitted as proof of the valuation in the case of some goods which have already been sold locally. The import application is then checked with the manifest, and a "duty memo" issued to the importer, who uses it in paying the duties at the Bank of China. The Maritime Customs itself handles no money. When the bank's receipt is returned, the application, stamped with the customs "red seal," is handed to the importer, who may then take delivery of the goods. Cargoes for which clearance has not been applied for at the customs, or on which duties are not paid within 15 days of arrival, must be bonded by the agents or consignees. They may be released at any time by payment of a fee of 10 taels, in addi-

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tion to the duties and the wharfage and conservancy dues, on presentation of an application at the bond office of the customhouse.

TRANSSHIPMENT OF GOODS.

If imported goods are to be reexported, either to a foreign country or from the original port of entry to another treaty port or to the interior of China, a "pass" may be secured. In case of reexportation within three years of importation the pass is exchangeable, after a period of about six months, for a drawback of the import duty. If the goods are to be reshipped to another treaty port the pass must be presented, either at the time of importation or within three years thereafter, in order to secure an "exemption certificate" (known as an "E. C."), which entitles the goods to free entry at the other port. Where the exemption certificate is issued for part of the goods only, the pass is retained by the owner until all have been disposed of or exported, when it is canceled. Passes are made out by the importer on forms sold by the customs and authenticated at the pass office on presentation with the bank receipt for the duty.

Applications to transship are handled in much the same manner as applications to import. Goods from places other than treaty ports, and those from Dairen and Weihaiwei (which are free ports), when transshipped to treaty ports, have to pay import duty or other charges at the latter.

If foreign goods are to be reexported from the original port of entry to places in the interior other than treaty ports, exemption from the likin taxes may be secured by taking out a special form of pass known as an "inward transit pass." This is issued after the transit half duty has been calculated on a "transit duty memo," and a bank receipt presented.

PROVISIONS GOVERNING EXPORT OF CHINESE PRODUCTS.

An application for the exportation of goods must be made in duplicate on a prescribed form and must be accompanied by a shipping order from the agents of the outgoing vessel. As nearly all exports from China are dutiable, an examination is usually required of goods produced within the customs district from which they are exported. The bulk of Chinese exports, however, have previously paid a duty on importation from other treaty ports or from the interior into the port of shipment, and perhaps a coast-trade half duty also, and have received, as a result, a "duty-paid certificate" (known as a "D. P. C."), which exempts them from duty on reexportation. The rest of the procedure is substantially the same as in the case of imports.

For goods manufactured by factory processes in China a "special exemption certificate" is issued, to enable them to take advantage of the so-called excise system (see p. 17). The transit-pass system is in principle applicable to exports; but, as outward transit passes can be secured only when the dealer in the interior is represented in the nearest treaty port, it is much less used than in the case of imports.

Chinese raw materials arriving from the interior frequently have to be repacked at the port of ocean shipment. As they have already paid a local import duty and have been granted a duty-paid certificate, this repacking can only be done on a permit issued by the "head

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desk" of the customs and in the presence of an examiner. Full export duty is charged on goods repacked without permission.

At Shanghai conservancy and wharfage dues are imposed on both exports and imports at the rate of 3 and 2 per cent, respectively, on the duties levied (not on the value of the goods). The wharfage dues defray the cost of maintaining port works and aids to navigation and vary somewhat from port to port. Conservancy dues, which are imposed only by special arrangement, are levied at Shanghai, Tientsin, and Newchwang. There are also tonnage dues and special charges for loading and discharging on Sundays and at night; but these, of course, are borne by the ship, and not the owners of the goods.

All customs charges are reckoned in "Haikwan" or "Maritime Customs" taels, which are merely a standard of value used to overcome the effects of the fluctuation of other currency, and actual payments are made (as explained on p. 23) either by check, at a fixed rate of exchange, or by cash in Chinese dollar currency at the current rate. "Haikwan" is merely the Chinese term for Maritime Customs.

SITUATION AT HONGKONG AND IN LEASED TERRITORIES.

The preceding statements, of course, do not apply to Hongkong. As a British colony, it controls its own customs policy, which is one of nearly absolute free trade. Charges bearing on foreign trade are practically limited to import duties on liquors and opium, war consumption taxes on tobacco, and "light" dues on shipping. Most of the Chinese foreign trade handled in Hongkong passes the Chinese customs at Canton or Kowloon, but some goes through Foochow, Amoy, Swatow, Samshui, Kongmoon, Wuchow, and a few other minor ports. Hongkong being an island, the terminus of the railroad from Canton is at Kowloon, and the traffic over this line comes, by an exceptional arrangement, within the jurisdiction of the Maritime Customs and is included in the official Chinese statistics.

Of the leased territories, Dairen, Kowloon, and Weihaiwei are themselves free ports. The exemption from customs duties applies only to imports for local consumption and exports of local origin, however, and all goods passing in and out of the interior are subject to the Chinese duties. Weihaiwei is of no importance in direct foreign trade, but at Dairen and Kowloon there are Chinese customhouses for the control of this traffic. At Tsingtau there is a free zone, although Tsingtau is not a free port, and a Chinese customhouse is maintained for the control of local imports.

CURRENCY.

The currency problem in China is complicated. There are three principal kinds of currency—the cash, the dollar, and the tael. The first of these hardly enters into foreign trade. The dollar and the tael currencies are both on a strictly silver basis, and from this fact arises the serious problem of Chinese exchange.

DOLLAR CURRENCY.

The dollar currency is the official national circulating medium of China. The basic unit is a silver dollar, adapted from the Mexican dollar, and sums expressed in it are frequently written and spoken of as "Mex." The real Mexican coins are now scarce. The new

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dollar is equivalent approximately to 0.644 of a Haikwan, or 0.7174 of a Shanghai, tael. It is becoming more and more the standard coin of the country, though it is still subject to discount in some localities, especially in the south. It is indicated by the same sign ($) as the United States dollar; and sums in the latter medium are distinguished locally by the letter "G" (gold). Americans must therefore use care in interpreting sums of money appearing in publications printed in China. Several other kinds of silver dollars also have a limited circulation, as in the case of the Hongkong dollar, which is common in southern China and is the official currency unit of Hongkong, having nearly the same weight and fineness as the Chinese dollar. There are also various provincial dollars, which circulate locally and are becoming less common.

The national currency includes silver 20 and 10 cent pieces, and a bronze cent. In practice these fluctuate independently of the dollar of which they are nominally fractions. The Chinese Government issues no paper currency of its own, but the Government-controlled Bank of China and Bank of Communications issue notes, which are not at present freely redeemed in specie and circulate only at heavy discounts. The foreign exchange banks (see p. 24) all issue, in dollar currency, notes which circulate at par in the locality where issued and at a small discount (usually from 2 to 5 per cent) in other parts of China.

The dollar currency is beyond doubt the coming standard of China, though the tael will continue to rule for a long time in commercial transactions. The dollar is now the medium for all cash payments in which foreigners are concerned, for most small personal bank accounts, and to an increasing degree for general retail business. It is used very little in wholesale business and very rarely in export and import business.

THE TAEL.

The tael currency is not a coinage, but a weight of silver of a given fineness. The weight of the Haikwan, or Maritime Customs, tael is approximately the same as the standard tael weight (1⅓ ounces avoirdupois). As far as foreigners are concerned, the tael is merely a money of account, like the guinea in Great Britain, and the ratios between the values of the different taels (of which there are said to be nearly 200) are determined by formulas established by custom and in most cases modified by fluctuations in exchange. The ratios between the Haikwan and certain of the other important taels are fixed by convention, the more important being as follows:

100 Haikwan taels	=	101.642335 Kuping or Treasury taels.
Do.	=	105.215 Tientsin taels.
Do.	=	111.4 Shanghai taels.
100 Kuping taels	=	109.6 Shanghai taels.

The ratio of the Haikwan to certain other commercial taels is also fixed from time to time by the customs authorities.

Aside from the Haikwan and Kuping taels (the Chinese land tax being reckoned in Kuping taels), the distinction is mainly geographical, and every important commercial center has its own tael. The values of these local taels fluctuate constantly in relation to each other, and the gold value of all fluctuates in general harmony with that of the dollar currency, the reciprocal exchange value also varying slightly from day to day.

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As there are no coined taels, payments in this medium are supposed to be made in silver bullion, or "sycee." This is usually in the form of ingots of a peculiar shape known as "shoes," which weigh about 50 taels apiece. Between foreign individuals and commercial firms, however, tael transactions are all settled either by the use of negotiable paper or by conversion into dollars. While this inconvenience is driving the tael out of use in retail transactions, conservatism, the influence of the great exchange banks, and uncertainty with regard to the purity of much of the circulating silver coinage combine to maintain the tael as the standard commercial currency of the country.

The tael is not used locally in Hongkong as a medium of exchange, and is less dominant in the trade of southern China than in that of the center and the north. The Government of Hongkong, moreover, restricts the circulation of dollar currencies other than its own.

BANKING AND FOREIGN EXCHANGE.

The native Chinese banking system, though efficient within certain limits for financing domestic trade, has practically no connection with actual exports and imports. All financial transactions in foreign trade are handled by the foreign exchange banks, which are few in number. They have their head offices in foreign countries and handle their Chinese business through branches in the different trade centers. The following list gives the names of the principal foreign exchange banks; it does not include one German institution that was recently closed:

International Banking Corporation:
Head office in New York, 55 Wall Street.
Office in San Francisco, 232 Montgomery Street.
Represented in Seattle by Dexter-Horton National Bank; National Bank of Commerce.

Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation:
Office in New York, 36 Wall Street.
Office in San Francisco, 401 Montgomery Street.
Represented in Seattle by Scandinavian-American Bank; Bank of California; Seattle National Bank; Dexter-Horton National Bank.

Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China:
Office in New York, 88 Wall Street.
Represented in San Francisco by the Anglo & London-Paris National Bank.
Represented in Seattle by Bank of California; Seattle National Bank; Scandinavian-American Bank.

Banque de l'Indochine:
Represented in New York by the Guaranty Trust Co., 140 Broadway.
Represented in San Francisco by International Banking Corporation.

Russo-Asiatic Bank:
Represented in New York by the National Bank.
Represented in San Francisco by the Crocker National Bank.
Represented in Seattle by Scandinavian-American Bank; Seattle National Bank.

Banque Belge pour L'Etranger:
Represented in New York by the National City Bank.
Represented in San Francisco by the Anglo & London-Paris National Bank.
Represented in Seattle by Seattle National Bank.

Banque Industrielle de Chine:
Represented in New York by Redmond & Co., 33 Pine Street.
Represented in San Francisco by the Anglo & London-Paris National Bank.

Netherlands Trading Society (Nederlandsche Handelsmaatschappij):
Represented in New York by The Bank of New York, 48 Wall Street.
Represented in San Francisco by the Wells Fargo Nevada National Bank.
Represented in Seattle by Seattle National Bank.

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Yokohama Specie Bank:
Office in New York, 120 Broadway.
Office in San Francisco, 415 Sansome Street.
Office in Seattle, Third and Columbia.
Asia Banking Co.:
Office in New York, 66 Liberty Street.

The American-Oriental Banking Corporation, an American institution, established a commercial and savings bank in Shanghai in October, 1917.

Excepting one French institution, in which 30 per cent of the capital is nominally held by the Chinese Government, all of these banks are entirely under foreign control.

Practically all of the foreign-exchange banks are represented in Shanghai, Hongkong, Hankow, and Tientsin, and in other trade centers, according to their importance. Their business is primarily to finance exports and imports and to settle trade and other international balances, the predominating factor in which is the gold and silver exchange. This business is highly specialized and has never yet been successfully undertaken merely as an adjunct of banking business in Europe or in the United States. Several of the banks restrict their activities almost wholly to exchange business, which is regarded as the most profitable line. The most important banks, however, engage extensively in financing commercial and industrial concerns and large-scale public utilities, for which purpose they usually have connections with important contracting and engineering houses. Some of the newer and less conservative institutions—particularly the Japanese, the Russian, and one of the French—undertake more business of a miscellaneous character (such as real-estate mortgages), which is looked on somewhat unfavorably by the others.

AMERICAN BANKING FACILITIES.

There is a general tendency for business in China to go to banks of its own nationality. On this basis the facilities for financing American trade and investments are inadequate; but so far as ordinary commercial transactions are concerned the importance of having American banks in China has probably been overestimated. Most authorities doubt whether new American banking interests would be able to establish themselves if they were to depend on the profits of export and import finance alone. Under normal conditions there is little serious complaint as to facilities for routine transactions, although at the outbreak of the war difficulties arose because some American trade was tied up with German and Austrian banks.

In the matter of financing investments and of special accommodations for firms established in China, American facilities are agreed to be deficient. When no serious question of international competition is involved, American houses have at times received better accommodations from British and French banks than from their own. For handling investments, especially the large class of public utilities and industrial openings which are not important enough to attract the direct attention of great financing concerns in this country, but which offer good chances for profit and for the development of markets for our goods, the lack of American bank representation on a broader basis is a serious handicap.

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Relations with the Chinese banking system are maintained through "comprador departments," which actually handle the specie and bullion and take the place of clearing houses.

A small but growing class of Chinese banks operate more or less on foreign lines. Foreigners are beginning to use these banks for local personal business, and before many years they may begin to undertake the financing of foreign trade. This class includes the Government-controlled Bank of China, particularly the branch at Shanghai, and a few others, mainly those in Shanghai and Hongkong. They are often prepared to do business on more favorable terms than the foreign banks, and this inclines many business men to deal with them; but the time is not ripe for commercial concerns not directly represented on the ground to attempt this. The Bank of Canton has an office in San Francisco, now located at 653 Kearney Street, and it is erecting a building at the corner of Montgomery and Sacramento Streets.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE.

The foregoing description of the currency and banking situation should make it plain why foreign exchange is of unique importance in the trade of China; why it tends to make necessary the services of the foreign exporting and importing houses as middlemen (see p. 29); and why forward and covering transactions in exchange play so conspicuous a part in the business of these concerns.

An inherent feature of every purchase of foreign goods for importation into China is an exchange contract between the Chinese buyer, or the foreign importing house acting on his behalf, and a bank in the port of importation, which acts as agent for the bank abroad to which the documents covering the purchase are hypothecated. These contracts are ordinarily arranged by bullion brokers, who receive commissions from the banks and are protected by them in the quotation of rates, so that there is usually no advantage in attempting to deal with the banks direct. If a contract is made for the purchase of goods at a price in gold, the buyer usually elects to pay for them on a straight c. i. f. basis, giving the importing house its profit and paying interest on the draft until it is retired; he selects, as far as possible, the most favorable time for fixing the rate of exchange between silver and gold. When the contract is made at a silver price, however, it is often drawn with the stipulation that the importer is to look after the bank and other charges himself. In such a case the importer's profit and the interest on the draft are included in the purchase price, and the goods are said to be sold on a c. i. f. c. i. basis; that is, "cost, insurance, and freight, plus commission (or more correctly, profit) and interest." (See p. 31.)

Both of these methods are common, and the practice varies with the importance of the transaction and the nature of the goods.

METHODS OF QUOTING EXCHANGE RATES.

Exchange quotations on China may be followed in the daily newspapers of Shanghai and Hongkong, or their weekly editions (see p. 45). Such quotations are not published regularly in this country, and if current rates are desired they must be obtained by application to the banks.

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Two forms of quotation are likely to be met with—the tael rate and the dollar rate. The latter is based on the tael rate, which is exclusively used in commercial transactions. The tael rate is expressed as the number of cents (United States currency) which will buy one tael (usually a Shanghai tael, if not otherwise stated); that is, a quotation of 85¼ indicates that one tael can be bought for $0.85125. The dollar, or "Mex.," rate is expressed as the number of Chinese ("Mexican") dollars that can be bought with $100 (or sometimes $1) United States currency.

The expressions "high" and "low" exchange refer to the tael rate, but are inconsistently applied to the dollar rate, so that a "high" exchange for the Mexican dollar is expressed by a lower number than a "low" exchange on the basis of United States currency. The rate used, of course, affects the conversion of Chinese customs statistics into foreign currencies. The figures published in the Supplements to Commerce Reports (see p. 43) are based on a rate computed by the Director of the Mint in Washington from the average value of silver bullion for the year. The rate given in the reports of the Maritime Customs is based on the average exchange on London. The differences are not important but sometimes confusing.

EFFECT OF EXCHANGE ON COURSE OF TRADE AND INVESTMENT.

In principle, a high exchange rate favors the import trade and the payment of principal and interest on foreign obligations and investments. A low exchange rate, on the other hand, favors exports and the investment of foreign capital to be paid out in China in wages or for the purchase of local products. At present, the high prices for all commodities, combined with the high exchange rate for silver, has the effect of giving Chinese investors, and foreigners whose capital is on a silver basis, an advantage in the establishment of new undertakings over investors of gold capital; because the high prices paid for imported machinery and materials are offset to a greater or less extent by the exchange. On the other hand, conditions are relatively favorable for selling machinery and materials to the organizers of Chinese and other purely local enterprises in China.

Experience has shown that a low exchange rate is more favorable to an active import and export trade, because the power of the Chinese population to purchase foreign goods is largely dependent on the extensive sale of Chinese products. A high exchange rate, which limits exports, therefore indirectly limits imports. Under war conditions, however, a number of other factors have tended to counterbalance the recent high exchange rates, and the trade of China has been on the whole very prosperous.

It must be remembered that every region of China has its local currency, which fluctuates independently of the international exchange. Even when international exchange favors imports into China, the fluctuations in local currency may not encourage the sale of goods in any given district, and vice versa. These complexities play an important part in making the foreign export and import houses a necessary factor in the conduct of business with China.

Artificial measures have recently kept the local foreign exchange in Hongkong at a point below the general level, and this has added further complexity to business in the southern part of China.

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WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

British standards of length, area, and capacity are almost universally employed in the foreign trade of China, though in dealing with other than British houses the metric and Japanese systems are occasionally used. Certain conventional Chinese units of weight are employed for local purposes, even by English speaking merchants. They are:

1 tael =1⅓ ounces avoirdupois.
1 catty =16 taels=1⅓ pounds or 21⅓ ounces avoirdupois.
1 picul =100 catties=133⅓ pounds avoirdupois.
15 piculs=1 short ton.

For rough reckoning, however, 16 piculs are taken as equivalent to a ton. The Chinese picul is the same as the Straits Settlements picul, but differs slightly from that used in the Dutch East Indies and from some of those used in the Philippines. The Japanese weight of 100 kin (132.277 pounds) is roughly considered as equivalent to the Chinese picul. The tael of weight should not be confused with the currency tael (see p. 22).

Chinese weights are used exclusively in computing customs duties and in commercial transactions other than minor retail matters in which foreigners alone are concerned. The names are Malay, not Chinese, but more or less equivalent weights with Chinese names are used all over the country. Units practically the same as those given above have recently been made the official standards for all China, but they have never been enforced in practice, and the actual local usage varies greatly.

INTERNAL COMMUNICATION.

POSTAL FACILITIES.

The Chinese Post Office is under the direction of foreigners, and, considering the difficulties with which it has to contend, gives very comprehensive and efficient service. There are also foreign post offices in China. Such post offices were formerly necessary because there was no regular Chinese postal system until 1896, but they now serve little purpose, except to give foreign residents in certain ports the benefit of domestic rates in corresponding with their home countries. The British offices, however, now charge Postal Union rates. Most of these foreign offices have been unprofitable, and their discontinuance is only a question of time. The one American post office is in Shanghai, and it is exceptional in having yielded a continuous profit.

Mail addressed to Shanghai from the United States requires only domestic postage, but that addressed to any other part of China requires foreign postage. There is no system of forwarding from the American office in Shanghai. In China, as elsewhere, there is a considerable amount of trouble with short-paid postage on mail from the United States. Too careful attention can not be given to this point.

There is an efficient parcel-post service, of which mail-order houses in this country are coming to make good use.

Hongkong has a distinct postal system.

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Addresses on mail for China should be as full as possible and carefully written, though as a rule the delivery of mail addressed in European languages gives little occasion for criticism. Chinese names look much alike to those unaccustomed to them, and the number of surnames is very small; hence care should be taken with spelling. Except in the case of the largest cities, the name of the Province should be added. Otherwise the situation would be as if the post office in this country had to deal with letters addressed "Springfield, U. S. A." Chinese street addresses are complicated and rarely necessary if the addressee is a foreigner. In Hongkong and in all the treaty-port areas under foreign control most of the streets have European names.

All foreign firms in China have Chinese names that are known locally as "hong names." Owing to the peculiarities of the language, it is rarely possible to represent the sound of a foreign name in Chinese characters with any approach to accuracy, and the hong name is usually an arbitrary title, sometimes untranslatable, the selection of which is bound by no rule except that the characters of which it is composed must be "lucky" ones. The hong name of the Grand Hotel des Wagons-Lits, the principal foreign hotel in Peking, means literally "The Six Nations' Eating House." In some cases it may be desirable for American firms to have printed on their envelopes in Chinese the hong name and address of important correspondents in China, outside the more important ports.

The normal mail time between China and the United States is 20 to 30 days and under war conditions frequently longer. Unless special pains are taken to select a mail going by a fast boat it is useless to expect a reply to a letter in less than 65 to 70 days. Moreover, the intervals between return mails and the time necessary to handle correspondence must be taken into consideration. The practice of some American firms that send follow-up letters at the same intervals as required in their domestic correspondence causes irritation and does harm to American trade standing.

TELEGRAPHS AND CABLES.

The Chinese telegraphs are Government owned, and the service is comprehensive and efficient. Domestic messages in European languages are sent for 9 cents Chinese currency per word, including addresses and signatures, between points within the same Province, and for 18 cents between points in different Provinces. Cable messages for China may be sent through any telegraph office in the United States. The commercial rate to the principal China ports is $1.22 from Atlantic coast points and $1.10 from those on the Pacific coast. At present there are restrictions on the use of code words, as in all cable correspondence.

EXPRESS SERVICE.

Arrangements in China for express business and forwarding goods to and from the United States have been inadequate, but the recent establishment of offices by large American express companies may be expected to improve matters. Care should be taken in dealing with purely local firms in this line of business.

The American Express Co., representing the Federal Express Co. of the United States (the unified Government express administra-

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tion), now has an office at Hongkong and is establishing one at Shanghai. In addition to furnishing the usual financial and traffic service, these offices will act as commercial bankers, furnish trade information, and attend to the details of travel for business or pleasure. Their commercial and financial services include marine and war-risk insurance; reservation of freight space; carting and warehousing; establishment of commercial credits; purchase and collection of drafts on the United States and Europe; cable transfers of funds; and (at Hongkong) ordinary commercial deposit and savings business and loans against warehouse receipts and bank paper. Their trade information service includes the investigation of markets and the furnishing of credit reports.

BUSINESS CONNECTIONS FOR CHINESE TRADE.

Practically all of China's trade with foreign countries is handled in China by foreign importing and exporting houses. While these vary greatly in size they are much alike in their scope and methods. Usually they do both an import and an export business, and the head offices for China are in Shanghai or Hongkong. There are a few firms, thoroughly reputable, but more local in character, with headquarters in Hankow, Tientsin, Canton, and some other cities.

TRADING HOUSES.

Only the largest trading houses have establishments at both Shanghai and Hongkong, and a manufacturer who desires to cover the whole of China must have representation, often with different houses, in both of these places. Unless products are to be marketed through the manufacturer's own organization, it is not usually necessary to have direct representation at any other ports. Nearly all the general importing and exporting houses in other ports that are in a position to do business efficiently are branches of or are otherwise connected with Shanghai and Hongkong firms, and they give or take their orders through those cities. The only important exceptions are the Japanese firms in Dairen and Tsingtau, and they are not adapted to serve American business. The larger Shanghai houses have branches or correspondents at Hankow and Tientsin, and at some of the following cities: Tsingtau, Chefoo, Peking, Dairen, Mukden, Harbin, Foochow, Changsha, Ichang, and Chungking. Dairen and Mukden have been neglected in recent years because of Japanese control of transportation in their vicinity. In South China the trade is comparatively small, and there are no ports of the second class relatively as important as Hankow and Tientsin. Canton is large, but it is too near Hongkong to require a separate organization for most lines of trade. The large Hongkong firms have branches at Amoy, Swatow, Foochow, and Wuchow.

As Hongkong is a British colony, some experienced persons recommend that American importing houses wishing to establish themselves in southern China should locate at Canton. In the latter city, however, the foreign concessions are small and crowded, and it is believed that American firms would do better to secure sites on the "Bund," or water front, which has been greatly improved of late years.

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The opportunity for American trade in South China appears to be excellent. The purchasing power of the people is greater here than in other sections, and the many thousands among the well-to-do commercial classes who have lived in the United States and made money are favorably disposed to Americans and to progressive ways.

ESTABLISHED AMERICAN CONNECTIONS.

A large majority of the exporting and importing houses in China have connections in the United States. Some have head offices there, others have branches, while still others are represented by firms with different names but under more or less the same ownership. Some houses appoint exclusive agents in the United States, while others have only correspondents. American firms of this nature established in China usually have offices in New York, San Francisco, or Seattle, some of them having offices in more than one of these cities. Generally when a manufacturer has once established connections with such a house and desires to transact routine business direct with its offices in China, no objection is made. For certain classes of firms in this country there are financial advantages in dealing through the home offices rather than the offices in China (see p. 36). If the head or controlling office of an importing house is located in the United States, communications with regard to its taking an agency would better be addressed directly to the head office. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce can furnish lists of such offices. Many exporting houses in China have connections with jobbers in this country and in some cases deal through them exclusively.

The few American houses in China that do not have regular connections in this country rarely have difficulty in making such connections when desired, and for this reason it is not often practicable for export commission houses and export agencies in the United States to secure exclusive connections with American houses already established in China. If such houses wish to enter the direct China trade actively and extensively, they ordinarily must establish their own offices in that country, or (what is less desirable) secure connections with foreign firms. (See p. 33.)

EXPORTING AND IMPORTING METHODS.

Such specialization as there is among the importing and exporting houses in China is confined to the more important export lines, such as tea, silk, wood oil, or hides. In the import trade there is some distinction between the "old line" houses, which handle chiefly the staples like cotton goods, kerosene, sugar, matches, metals, and heavy hardware, and the newer houses, which are more likely to deal in sundries and specialties. Most houses pay special attention to some line or a group of related lines, and it is always advantageous to place an agency for any line with a firm that tends to specialize in that direction.

The data given in this pamphlet are sufficient to indicate the complexities involved in the handling of export and import trade in China, the calls that are likely to arise for liquid capital, and, consequently, the advantage which the larger business house enjoys over the smaller. This leads inevitably to a considerable degree of concentration of business in the hands of the larger firms. At the same

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time anything resembling monopoly is very undesirable; and the best solution is for the smaller concerns to strengthen their positions by a higher degree of specialization. If this is done along proper lines, such houses will have advantages for taking agencies which they rarely possess at present.

The typical method of selling through one of these houses involves the following procedure: The Chinese purchaser or wholesaler places an order with the import house, which then makes its own order, or "indent," on the manufacturer, for whom it usually holds an exclusive agency. The contract of sale may stipulate a price in gold or in silver (Chinese currency). If the price is quoted in silver, the import house assumes the bank and other charges and the risks of exchange, covering itself as may be necessary by forward exchange transactions (see p. 25), and reimbursing itself by the profit included in the calculation of the silver selling price. If the price is quoted in gold, the Chinese purchaser normally assumes the charges and risks himself.

Manufacturers' prices and the profits realized are usually treated as confidential. Net prices are seldom accepted, and the complications of the foreign exchange seem to justify this attitude. For the same reason, strict commission business is not the rule, though the word "commission" is not infrequently applied locally to items that are really profits.

While the use of the special indent will probably remain the usual method for buying specialties, high-grade machinery and tools, etc., there is an increasing tendency among import houses to carry stocks of staple lines, accessories and spare parts, etc.; this tendency is strongest, of course, when prices are rising or exchange going down. In that respect, the trade approximates very closely to a jobbing business. This tendency is on the increase, and the merchant who is working against keen competition is advised to carry stock to the fullest extent justified by conditions in his line.

Sundry export products are bought largely on special order or by buyers stationed or traveling in the interior. As most of these products are repacked (see p. 20) or put through preliminary processes of cleaning, drying, disinfecting, or preserving, a certain amount of stock must be carried.

METHODS OF CONDUCTING BUSINESS IN CHINA.

Importing and exporting houses usually conduct their dealings with Chinese concerns through a Chinese "comprador." He is the manager of the Chinese office force of the house and as such usually receives a small salary, which sometimes also serves as a retainer. His relation to the buying and selling varies; sometimes he receives a commission, at other times he resells on a nearly independent basis. When the trade of China was smaller and less varied and when international competition was less keen, the comprador occupied a more independent position. His services relieved the foreign principals of responsibility but inevitably tended to cut down their profits. For this reason there is a strong tendency for the comprador to sink to the position of manager of the Chinese office force, a similar change having occurred years ago in the case of the corresponding system in Japan.

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POSITION OF THE COMPRADOR.

Elimination of the comprador's services has naturally gone farthest among the newest and most progressive firms. The principal factor that retards it is the part which the comprador still plays as a credit man. In this capacity he frequently guarantees the native bank drafts paid in for orders, putting up a bond to cover his responsibility. Changes in Chinese methods in the large ports and the increasing tendency of importing houses to employ foreigners who speak Chinese and can maintain friendly relations with the native commercial community are reducing the need for the comprador's services; but he can not be dispensed with entirely until modern accounting methods are adopted more generally by Chinese banks and until more native firms are prepared to deal on a direct and equal basis with foreign houses.

The comprador also has more or less the function of a broker, in securing customers, etc. There is, in addition, a class of native brokers—not strictly compradors—employed by foreign firms. It is probably in this connection that the chief objections to the system have arisen and for this reason that the change just referred to will be most rapid.

Sellers abroad may assume that direct dealing with Chinese houses will largely reduce the cost of doing business, and some may believe that the decreasing importance of the comprador makes such direct dealings more practicable. In the main this is not the case. The comprador is only one of two links between the foreign house abroad and the Chinese purchaser, and his diminishing importance leaves the other link—the foreign house in China—more rather than less essential.

Such a link will continue to be needed for a long time in trade with China because: (1) The complexities of foreign exchange necessitate constant covering and forward transactions, and (2) there are difficulties in dealing at long range with firms doing business only by Chinese methods. Most Chinese merchants have not studied foreign methods or the problem of foreign exchange. They have only begun to adopt proper systems of accounting and to make allowance for depreciation in stock and plant. They are likely to refuse deliveries when exchange has turned against them. The Chinese banking system affords no systematic facilities for accommodations to merchants in difficulties, and no reliance should be placed on making collections by litigation. In many cases the best method of avoiding losses, therefore, is to be prepared to give financial assistance to the debtor, and this can be done safely only through representatives on the ground. Finally, the Chinese are weak on corporation management. There is no effective Government supervision of corporations, and such business—despite important and honorable exceptions—is apt to attract the more adventurous and less responsible of the Chinese commercial classes. Finally, it should be remembered that difficulties likely to arise because of radical differences in the habits and racial traits of the people concerned are more easily adjusted by men on the ground.

DEALING DIRECT WITH CHINESE FIRMS.

For the present direct dealings with Chinese houses are generally to be avoided. There are a few Chinese concerns that should be

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excepted from this statement, such as those in southern China, which have been longer in contact with foreign business and are less conservative. Consequently more Chinese firms can be dealt with dirently in Hongkong and Canton than in Shanghai. This fact is of importance for American trade, because there is in Hongkong and Canton a deficiency of American importing houses, and it should be considered in connection with the recommendations on page 31 with regard to the establishment of American firms in Canton rather than Hongkong.

One point in the development of Chinese importing firms that is not quite so advantageous to American trade is the fact that they have made more progress in direct purchasing for the local retail business at the great ports than for the wholesale trade, and that they handle the cheaper stock lines, like furnishings and household goods, cheap tools and hardware, glassware, drug sundries, and toilet supplies, rather than the great staples, like machinery, or the more expensive specialties, in which the best demand for American goods is likely to develop. However, the great importing houses are not very well adapted to handle certain specialties, like optical lenses, the market for which is limited and the competition not keen, and sometimes these goods can be sold by direct connections with Chinese concerns.

AMERICAN AGENCIES FOR AMERICAN GOODS.

There is a strong tendency for European importing houses to favor goods produced in their own countries. The general rule in the export trade to China therefore must be "American agencies for American goods." At present European houses that are unable to get supplies from their own countries are ready to turn for the time being to American manufacturers. But despite the fact that a temporary advantage may be gained by doing business through European or Japanese firms, this method is inadvisable in the long run, as such dealings may harm an American house by divulging to foreigners price data, trade methods, and patent or secret processes.

If the requirement of American agencies for American goods is strictly adhered to, the small number of American importing houses in China may cause complications in the handling of technical and competitive lines, especially as there is a tendency for existing firms to undertake more agencies than they can handle properly. The remedy for this lies in an increase in the number of American houses, without duplicating facilities. In view of the practical difficulties in the way of securing trained staffs, etc., a wholly satisfactory solution will probably come only with an increase in the number of Chinese firms qualified to handle foreign trade direct, or with some form of combination for export among manufacturers in the United States.

In the export trade the question of nationality is generally less important, though it may cause complications in abnormal times, as it did at the outbreak of the European war, when a large proportion of the exports from China to the United States were handled by German and Austrian firms. Since that time the machinery for handling this trade under American control has been much extended and improved, and it is unlikely that the problem will again become so acute.

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AGENCIES AND DIRECT REPRESENTATION.

Agencies for the sale of foreign goods in China rarely cover the whole country. Separate agencies are needed at Shanghai for the central and northern fields and at Hongkong for the southern field. Representation in other trade centers is usually left to the discretion of the agent in Shanghai or Hongkong, to be managed through his own branches or through subagencies with local firms; but it is sometimes advisable to have a separate agency in Tientsin, and perhaps also in one of the Manchurian cities. The only satisfactory alternative to agencies is the establishment of the firm's own organization on the ground, but this involves so great an initial expense that it is impracticable at the outset for any but the largest concerns.

As American trade is hampered by the comparatively small number of American houses prepared to take agencies and by the fact that a large proportion of our business is in technical lines and specialties, a combination of agencies and direct representation may prove desirable. It is possible, of course, to start out with sales by agencies, with a view to direct representation later. The change to direct representation should always be made with proper regard for the interests of the agent, as in a number of cases the reputation of American business has been hurt by abrupt withdrawal of an agency built up, after great effort, by a foreign house. In this connection the statement on page 36 with regard to dealing direct or through offices of China firms in this country should be noted.

The best arrangement, particularly in the case of specialties and of lines in which technical knowledge is an important factor, is probably a combination of an active agency with one or more special representatives under the direct control of the exporter to look after the technical, introduction, and advertising work, and, within certain limits, to solicit and take orders. Such representatives have to be well paid, and they should be selected with more regard to general personality and education than has sometimes been the practice with American firms. It is highly desirable that they be given opportunity and encouragement to learn to speak Chinese; and a house desiring to establish itself permanently and extensively in China is well advised to give competent young men an opportunity for training in the language and local practices. Immediate returns from such expenditure can not be expected.

ORGANIZATION OF BRANCH OFFICES.

A single special representative will cover his field (northern or southern China, but preferably not both) by visiting at least once a year the principal trade centers in which connections have been established. The extent to which he should solicit and take orders or undertake the establishment of new connections will be greatest where the goods are highly specialized and where the purchasers are few in number and do business on a considerable scale. The social element is important in work of this kind, and the representative needs keen intelligence and initiative and interest in the country and people. In some instances there is need for specialized technical and advertising knowledge, but the general qualifications just mentioned never come amiss. Traveling representatives must be careful to comply with

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the laws and regulations regarding passports, etc. They are not subject to special taxation except for minor municipal dues in some foreign concessions and leased territories.

Another combination utilizes the services of the representative of the manufacturer and also of the general trading house. In this case the representative or salesman secures and books all orders, which, however, are not accepted by the manufacturer until they have been confirmed by an exporting house in the United States with local connections. The confirmation is designed in part to guarantee the account, thus taking the responsibility for the financial soundness of the customers off the shoulders of the salesman—who may not be a credit man—and putting it on an organization that has special facilities for securing the necessary information. The part played by the exporting house in such a transaction depends upon the extent to which it is expected to undertake the actual financing of the shipment, and the commission charged varies with this and the other factors involved. The commission is most often not more than 1 per cent, but may be as high as 2 or 3 per cent.

If a branch office is established, the responsible representatives should be Americans. American houses have gone further than those of other nationalities in employing qualified Chinese for comparatively high positions, but only a small number of such men are available. The employment of Europeans and Japanese for responsible positions in American firms is to be deprecated and has often done harm to our national interests. In Shanghai and Hongkong routine clerical positions are largely filled by the local Portuguese, who, however, all know English. Elsewhere, Americans in training for promotion must be employed for the upper grades of clerical work and Chinese for the lower. Efficient Chinese labor of this class is not abundant, but can be more easily obtained now than formerly.

Manufacturers and exporters in foreign countries seldom come into contact with retail trade in China, though some of the retail houses in the large ports (especially those catering to the foreign communities and a very few large Chinese department stores) import their own stocks direct and handle agency business as well. For this reason a description of retail business organizations and methods is not considered necessary.

SUGGESTIONS FOR AMERICAN EXPORTERS.

The need of better banking facilities and of more liberal selling terms in dealing with China is an old story in this country. The latter factor, it is true, has been somewhat exaggerated, as results hardly justify the very long credits that traders of certain nationalities are supposed to have alloyed. However, demands for cash against order and for payment for samples, or similar extreme precautions, will not advance American trade. Chinese houses with which it is safe to deal at all, and American concerns in China that are in good standing but are not well known or directly represented in this country, will be found ready to furnish suitable references through the foreign-exchange banks and, when necessary, to arrange for confirmed credits. These, however, are sometimes demanded when they are not necessary.

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CREDITS AND CREDIT TERMS.

Reputable American houses in China under normal conditions expect to make payment on direct orders for goods at 60 days' sight when shipments are made via the Pacific, at 90 days when via the Panama Canal, and at 120 days when via Suez. War conditions, however, have made shipments via Suez generally impracticable, and longer terms are now expected on trans-Pacific shipments on account of the congestion of the transcontinental freight service. In discounting an open draft (that is, where no confirmed credit has been established) a bank in this country will usually add 60 days' interest time (30 days each way) to cover the transmission of the draft and remittance, thus discounting a 90-day draft on a five months' basis. Drafts on China are handled by any banking house in this country having connections for foreign exchange business.

Manufacturers who desire to trade with China on only a small scale, or who are taking up Oriental business for the first time, frequently desire connections that will permit a quicker turnover. In such cases it is advisable to deal through the offices or representatives of China importing houses in this country (see p. 30), as they are usually prepared to make immediate payment and to carry the goods themselves for the necessary periods. While rates for this business will obviously be less favorable than where the dealings are direct, there is no tying up of funds. Many firms in this country are willing to handle export orders on this basis, so far as procedure at this end is concerned, but preference should be given to those that have direct and permanent (preferably American) connections in China, particularly where specialties or newly introduced lines are concerned.

Exports from China are usually financed by the exporting house, which draws on the purchaser (who must, as a rule, have established a credit with them) at 60 days for shipments via the Pacific or 90 days for those coming via Panama.

There are no regular credit agencies in China except the recently established service of a large express company, and credit information is usually secured from the foreign exchange banks, which prefer that requests come through their banking connections in this country. The services render by the comprador, as a local Chinese credit man, are described on page 32.

PACKING.

Most American packing for China is as good as that of other exporting countries. However, this year the first shipment of American gloves to Peking was largely ruined by sea water because they were shipped only in the pasteboard boxes in which they were to be displayed on the shelf. Recently a shipment of photographic goods from a house long experienced in the export trade was badly damaged because a minute hole in the tin case in which they were sealed was overlooked. Shortages in the parts of knockdown machinery, etc., have also been the cause of complaints against American exporters.

The conditions governing packing for the Chinese trade are not unusually difficult. Until imported goods, except a few lines like mining machinery, arrive at the point where it is necessary to break

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up the original packing, transportation is almost entirely by rail or steamer. It is sufficient, therefore, to follow general instructions with regard to satisfactory packing for export and to comply carefully with any special instructions from the agent or purchaser.

PRICE QUOTATIONS.

The general rule that a c. i. f. quotation gets more foreign business than one made f. o. b. holds true with regard to China, but war conditions have made some modification necessary. Under present shipping conditions a firm c. i. f. price is practically impossible; consequently quotations in catalogues, circulars, and correspondence, which will take at least 30 days to reach China, may as well be made f. o. b. port of shipment. Quotations f. o. b. cars or factory are as undesirable as ever.

Quotations f. o. b. should invariably be accompanied by data regarding the weights and dimensions of the goods when packed for ocean shipment. American manufacturers fail on this point more frequently perhaps than on any other point relating to export trade. The office of the commercial attaché at Peking reported not long ago that out of approximately 100 letters it had received only one gave this essential information. Such letters, when received in China, can not be referred to importing houses that might become agents, as the communications would not be given serious consideration. The very best that can be expected is that they will be referred back for the necessary data on shipping dimensions, which will mean a delay of at least three months.

Cable quotations should be made c. i. f. even under war conditions. The necessary information with regard to freight rates can be obtained without serious difficulty from the steamship companies at ports or from the principal inland offices of the transcontinental railroads. The chief thing to be borne in mind is that at present such quotations must be checked oftener and with more care than is necessary in normal times.

LANGUAGE.

Practically all commercial correspondence with China may be in English. It is impracticable to make use of Chinese in this country, and the few Chinese firms in a position to handle foreign trade direct are prepared to use English.

COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATIONS.

Trade in China is not yet adequately served in the matter of American commercial organizations, though there has been a material improvement in the last three years. American chambers of commerce have been formed in Shanghai and Tientsin, and, as far as their facilities permit, maintain general trade-information services. Inquiries may be directed to the secretary of the organization; no street address is necessary.

INTRODUCTION OF NEW GOODS.

Methods of introducing new lines in China are of importance in American trade because the demand most capable of development calls for special rather than staple goods. Experience in recent

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years has shown that with proper methods new markets can be created in China for unfamiliar goods. For the more expensive and highly specialized articles the sale will be limited, yet even such goods may be found in unexpected places. China is perhaps the last country where a market would be expected for automatic stoking apparatus, for example, yet sales in this line have been made.

The development of American trade in new lines is handicapped by the reluctance of some American manufacturers to take foreign orders simply because they are small. The introduction of specialties in an Oriental country, and especially in China, must start from small beginnings. If the manufacturer waits for a large order he may never receive it.

Success with new lines means intensive work on the ground. Attempts to sell by catalogue have even less chance in China than elsewhere, owing to the extreme differences between the languages and the mental outlook of the seller and the buyer. The commercial attaché at Peking and the American consulates in China maintain libraries of catalogues in their offices, and are always glad to receive new ones. Manufacturers can well afford to contribute catalogues to these collections, because of the general publicity thus secured for their names and goods; but they should not expect that this will lead to many actual sales. One or two American manufacturers have issued catalogues in Chinese, but it is extremely difficult to do this unless there is a branch office established in China, to supervise the translation and publication, and the advantage is rarely great enough to justify the expense.

Introduction methods most likely to bring success include the maintenance of personal touch with prospective customers, the liberal use of samples, the employment of demonstrations, assistance in the establishment of related trades and industries, and advertising. In developing any of these, the services of representatives on the ground working in harmony with an importing firm are desirable. In any case, the special expenses involved—for example, in advertising—will fall upon the manufacturer. Importing houses will do a limited amount of introductory work, but it will be in the expectation of an unusual profit, which will naturally go into their own pockets. As a rule, if the work of introduction is to be well done, the producer must follow it up himself.

The Chinese business man likes to be "shown," and, because of his unfamiliarity with occidental life, a mere verbal description does not appeal to him. The liberal use of samples is therefore urged. Generally they should be placed in the hands of an agent and be distributed at his discretion. There is no general provision for their importation free of duty. The inspector general of the Maritime Customs may admit samples duty free at his discretion. The American idea of demonstrating goods, especially machinery, is liked by the Chinese and is capable of great expansion.

Other things being equal, the firm that is in a position to accommodate its customers in a comprehensive way will succeed best in selling to the Chinese. With the exception of a few of the most favorably situated and progressive concerns, Chinese business firms are relatively unfamiliar with modern commercial and industrial methods and facilities, and competent technical assistance is scarce.

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A Chinese customer buying flour-mill machinery, for example, will give an order by preference to the house that is prepared to quote, not merely on a self-contained mill but on power plant as well, and to undertake through its agents to erect the buildings and the machinery and to put the whole plant in working order. The active general importing houses go far toward meeting this demand, but the more the manufacturer is prepared to cooperate in so doing the better his prospects will be.

ENCOURAGEMENT OF INDUSTRIES TO CREATE MARKETS.

The encouragement of industries to create a demand is a form of introduction work that has proved very effective in special cases. A concern exporting petroleum products to China, for example, imported machinery for making candles and gave other assistance to local candle manufacturers, thus contributing to the permanent demand for its paraffin and stearin as raw materials. A lumber importing house had as one of its customers a Chinese cooperage concern which became involved in financial difficulties. It gave the Chinese house financial assistance, enabled it to extend its business, and thereby enlarged the market for American staves and shooks. These illustrations suggest the character of the opportunities that are offered; general rules for handling them are obviously impracticable.

ADVERTISING.

The possibilities of advertising in China have been realized only recently. The fact that the proportion of illiterates is large has obscured the fact that conditions in China make pictorial advertising particularly effective. Of the three principal forms of advertising—newspaper, handbill, and poster—the first is of less importance in China than in this country, but the last two have equal or even greater value.

Advertising in Chinese newspapers is rapidly becoming more important and reaches a far greater number of persons than is indicated by the circulation figures of the newspapers. There are only about 50 Chinese newspapers of standing or importance, and the average circulation is not over 3,000, though in exceptional cases it may run up to 25,000 or 30,000. A single copy, however, may change hands as many as 10 times. It is stated that an advertisement equivalent to about a quarter of a page in an ordinary American daily costs on an average from $5 to $18 for insertion in a Chinese newspaper daily for one month. To this must be added a fee to an advertising agency and charges for translation and for the electrotype. Advertising in the foreign-language press (mostly English) should form part of any thorough publicity campaign. The market offered by the foreign community itself is restricted; but the foreign press reaches the English-speaking Chinese, and in this manner currents of advertising are set flowing which ultimately cover large areas.

Handbill advertising reaches a large number of people who can not read or afford to buy newspapers. Handbills have long been a familiar form of publicity to the Chinese, and they are perhaps more effective in China than in this country, because the public is not so surfeited with reading matter. Poster advertising is the most widely used, and under present conditions the most effective form of adver-

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tising in China. It is not restricted by taxation or special legislation. Illustrated handbills and posters, especially those in colors, bring the best results. It makes little difference if the drawing is crude, provided the idea meets Chinese notions of propriety. A certain amount of text is desirable, for, owing to the peculiar character of Chinese writing, there are innumerable grades of literacy, and many who can not read a newspaper can read a few selected characters on a poster.

The details of preparing advertising matter for China, especially translation work, should be left to persons on the ground. The structure of the language, the association of ideas, and the conceptions of what is ridiculous and what is fitting, differ so widely from our views that advertising matter which ignored them would run grave risks of doing the merchandise more harm than good. There are now translating and advertising agencies in Shanghai that undertake work of this kind; but this is a field that is easily exploited by the incompetent, and such concerns should be employed only after investigation and under proper supervision. Even the drawings and cuts can be made more satisfactorily and cheaply in China.

Advertising in China is important in creating an immediate demand for the goods, but perhaps more important in familiarizing the public with the advertiser's brand. The trade-mark, or "chop," is all important to the Chinese. An illiterate laborer, on buying a package of cigarettes, may be seen to cross the street to compare the trade-mark with the picture on a billboard with which he had become familiar. This situation has an important bearing on the importance of protecting trade-marks, discussed in the next section. Simple pictures are best for such "chops," since pictures are harder to imitate or infringe than bits of text. The more familiar Chinese characters in various combinations are also widely used. Many foreigners in China who make no pretense of reading the language can write offhand the characters forming the name of a widely-sold Japanese patent medicine, because of its persistent use in billboard advertising.

PATENTS AND TRADE-MARKS.

The value of trade-marks in China is very great. The situation regarding both patents and trade-marks, however, is confused and unsatisfactory, as there are no adequate Chinese laws on either subject. Important as trade-marks, or "chops," are in Chinese domestic trade, they are protected only by customary law. There are no systematic arrangements for granting patents, and Chinese patents are seldom sought by foreigners. The system of exterritoriality extends the protection of American law to China as far as infringement by Americans is concerned, but in other cases the situation is complicated.

The danger of infringement of patents by Chinese is small, but in the case of trade-marks it is great. If infringement occurs, the only recourse is a protest through diplomatic channels, and those protests will ordinarily be taken up by the Chinese Government as a matter of equity. Of late this method has been fairly effective, but the process is slow, and the same infringements keep cropping up anew. A wholly satisfactory solution is not yet in sight.

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If the infringer is a foreigner there is no recourse unless the owner of a patent or trade-mark has had it registered or otherwise protected in accordance with the laws of the offender's country, and has thus gained a status that permits him to sue in the consular courts of that country. This precaution of registration should always be taken. Its efficacy in preventing infringement varies with the merits and conditions of each particular case. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce is prepared to furnish information with regard to the mode of such registration in foreign countries. In practice, patented processes and devices are protected more by secrecy than by any legal means.

The promulgation of satisfactory regulations, sanctioned by treaty, for the registration of trade-marks in China has long been under discussion. The main difficulty lies in a controversy in which the United States and Great Britain stand on one side, and the Continental Powers and Japan on the other. The former desire to establish the principle of priority of use; the latter that of priority of registration.

Hongkong has distinct patent and trade-mark legislation, and the Japanese laws on the subject are applied in practice in the leased territories of Kwantung and Kiaochow.

GOVERNMENT ASSISTANCE TO AMERICAN TRADE.

Trade-promotion work of the United States Government is centered in the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, which maintains a staff of commercial attachés and field agents and also receives and publishes the commercial reports made by consular officers, who are under the jurisdiction of the State Department.

The commercial attaché to China, who is appointed by and is under the direction of the Secretary of Commerce and is accredited through the State Department, has his office at the American Legation in Peking. The function of the commercial attaché is to investigate and report on financial, industrial, and commercial conditions in China. His field, unlike that of the consuls, covers all of China. The commercial attaché is our trade adviser abroad and in this capacity largely confines his attention to fundamental industrial and economic developments affecting China's foreign trade. His reports are sent direct to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce; and, therefore, business men and investors in the United States should consult the Bureau before communicating direct with the commercial attaché.

The Bureau also sends to the Far East expert agents to investigate particular lines of commerce or industry. The principal lines covered in recent years have been canned goods, cotton goods, lumber, railroad supplies, boots, shoes and leather, motor vehicles, electrical machinery and appliances, and mineral resources.

There are 17 consulates general and consulates in China (including Hongkong). The consulates general are located in Shanghai, Hongkong, Canton, Hankow, Tientsin, and Mukden; the consulates at Harbin, Antung, Dairen (Japanese leased territory), Chefoo, Tsingtau, Nanking, Changsha, Foochow, Amoy, Chungking, and Swatow.

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The commercial attaché and the consuls are in China for the benefit of American manufacturers, merchants, and investors. Their function is generally to collect and report information; they can not be expected to place agencies, obtain orders, sell goods, or in any way act as agents for individual concerns. Apart from this, their services are at the disposal of American firms up to the limit of their time and office facilities.

The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce has seven district offices in the chief commercial cities, as follows:

New York, 734 Customhouse.
Boston, 1801 Customhouse.
Chicago, 504 Federal Building.
St. Louis, 402 Third National Bank Building.
New Orleans, 1020 Hibernia Bank Building.
San Francisco, 307 Customhouse.
Seattle, 848 Henry Building.

By arrangement with chambers of commerce cooperative offices are also maintained in—

Cleveland: Chamber of Commerce.
Cincinnati: Chamber of Commerce.
Los Angeles: Chamber of Commerce.
Philadelphia: Chamber of Commerce.
Portland, Oreg.: Chamber of Commerce.
Dayton: Greater Dayton Association.

The district and cooperative offices are equipped to perform many of the services rendered by the Bureau in Washington and keep stocks of the Bureau's publications. Business men will often find it advantageous to consult these offices before communicating with the Bureau at Washington.

The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce strongly recommends that all inquiries be directed in the first instance either to the Bureau direct or to one of its offices in the United States. The commercial and financial information available in its files is large and increasing, and a preliminary inquiry will in many cases save writing to a number of consulates with a wait of from one to three months for replies. If the Bureau is unable to supply adequate information from its files it will refer the inquiry to the commercial attaché or will recommend specific consulates with which to communicate.

The practice of writing simultaneously to the commercial attaché and all the consulates in China, without consulting the Bureau, usually involves a waste of labor and postage. In case an extended investigation is desired the Bureau will assist in preparing a questionnaire to be submitted to the consular officers through the State Department.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

Published information on commercial, industrial, and financial conditions in China is extensive but scattered. Publications that are usually accessible in this country are briefly described below.

PUBLICATIONS OF BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE.

The publications of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce may be secured direct from the Bureau or its district and

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cooperative offices, at nominal prices, and may also be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. These publications include:

1. Commerce Reports: A daily journal containing articles submitted by consular officers, commercial attachés, and commercial agents of the Department of Commerce, as well as trade information from other sources. The subscription price is $2.50 per annum. The annual reports of consular officers are issued as supplements to Commerce Reports and are sent free to all subscribers. They contain general information on commercial, industrial, and financial conditions.

2. Bulletins on special subjects: These comprise the Special Agents Series, Special Consular Reports, Tariff Series, and Miscellaneous Series. These monographs appear at irregular intervals and are sold at nominal prices. Announcement of their publication appears in Commerce Reports. A catalogue containing a brief description of each bulletin may be obtained from the Bureau or its district and cooperative offices.

The monographs containing material relating to China include:

Special Agents Series:
- No. 86. Cotton Goods in Japan and their Competition on the Manchurian Market (1914, 30 cents).
- No. 92. Canned Goods in the Far East (1915, 10 cents).
- No. 99. Cottonseed Industry in Foreign Countries (1915, 10 cents).
- No. 104. China and Indo-China Markets for American Lumber (1915, 5 cents).
- No. 107. Cotton Goods in China (1916, 25 cents).
- No. 170. Motor Vehicles in Japan, China, and Hawaii (1918, 15 cents).

Special Consular Series:
- No. 45. Cordage and Twine in Foreign Countries (1911, 5 cents).
- No. 46. Optical Goods Trade in Foreign Countries (1911, 10 cents).
- No. 48. Railway Situation in China (1911, 5 cents).
- No. 51. Foreign Trade in Denatured Alcohol (1912, 5 cents).
- No. 52. Foreign Salt Market and Industry (1912, 10 cents).
- No. 53. Foreign Markets for Motor Vehicles (1912, 10 cents).
- No. 54. Foreign Trade in Canned Goods (1912, 15 cents).
- No. 55. Foreign Trade in Musical Instruments (1912, 10 cents).
- No. 56. Foreign Trade in Paints and Varnishes (1912, 10 cents).
- No. 59. Development of the Motor Vehicle Trade Abroad (1913, 5 cents).
- No. 60. Foreign Markets for Railway Supplies and Equipment (1913, 25 cents).
- No. 62. Markets for American Fruits (1914, 10 cents).
- No. 63. Cooking and Heating Stoves in Foreign Countries (1914, 10 cents).
- No. 73. Paper and Stationery Trade of the World (1915, 50 cents).
- No. 74. Japanese Cotton Goods Industry and Trade (1915, 5 cents).
- No. 75. Foreign Trade in Buttons (1916, 20 cents).
- No. 76. Proprietary Medicine and Ointment Trade in China (1916, 5 cents).

Tariff Series:
- No. 29. Foreign Import Duties on Office Appliances (1914, 5 cents).
- No. 30. Foreign Import Duties on Motor Vehicles and Accessories (1914, with supplement 1917; original work, 10 cents; supplement, 5 cents).

Miscellaneous Series:
- No. 10. Foreign Publications for Advertising American Goods (1913, 25 cents).
- No. 44. Trans-Pacific Shipping (1916, 5 cents).
- No. 50. Far Eastern Markets for American Hardware (1917, 25 cents).

There are now in course of preparation further monographs on the market in China for boots, shoes, and leather; railway supplies and equipment; and electrical appliances and machinery.

3. Statistical publications. These include: Monthly Summary of Foreign Commerce of the United States; Imports Entered for Con-

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sumption (quarterly); Commerce and Navigation (annual); Trade of the United States with the World (biennial); Statistical Abstract (annual).

PUBLICATIONS OF THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT.

The only publications of the Chinese Government containing much trade information are those issued by the Maritime Customs. The others appearing regularly in English are the annual reports of the Post Office, the Bank of China, and the Government railroads. There is a report of a census of agriculture and industries published in Chinese, of which the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce has a partial translation in manuscript. The publications of the Chinese Maritime Customs are sold in the United States through G. E. Stechert & Co., 151 West Twenty-fifth Street, New York City. They include:

(1) Daily returns of the trade of Shanghai.
(2) Quarterly returns of the trade of China.
(3) Annual Reports and Returns of the Trade of China.
(4) Index to Annual Reports and Returns of the Trade of China, published every five years (last in 1917).
(5) Decennial review of the trade of China (last issue dated 1911).
(6) Editions of the tariff, showing duties on goods the valuations of which have been fixed. There are two of these, one covering the import and the other the export tariff.
(7) Special series, including special reports on Chinese raw materials.
(8) Miscellaneous series (chiefly relating to aids to navigation).

Students of Chinese trade will be interested chiefly in the Annual Reports and Returns of the Trade of China, the editions of the Tariff, and a few of the special and miscellaneous series. The last-named include:

Special series:
No. 16. Chinese Jute.
No. 27. An Inquiry into the Commercial Liabilities and Assets of China in International Trade.
No. 30. Memorandum on Wild Silkworm Culture in Southeastern Manchuria.
No. 31. The Soya Bean of Manchuria.
Miscellaneous series:
No. 17. List of Chinese Medicines.

The annual reports and returns of trade are published in eight parts at irregular intervals from about May to October of every year, as follows:

Part I. Report on the Foreign Trade of China and Abstract of Statistics.
Part II. Trade by ports: Vol. I, Northern Ports; Vol. II, Central Ports; Vol. III, Yangtze Ports; Vol. IV, Southern Coast Ports; Vol. V, Frontier Ports.
Part III. Vol. I, Analysis of the Import Trade; Vol. II, Analysis of the Export Trade.

Part III consists wholly of statistics, but in the other volumes there are concise and authoritative narrative reports—in Part I for China as a whole and in Part II for each of the 48 treaty ports.

These publications are valuable, but voluminous and fairly expensive. Owing to the peculiarities of the Chinese tariff system the statistical returns are complicated and it is difficult for an inexperienced person to use them. The essential figures are incorporated in the annual reports of the American consular officers published as

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Supplements to Commerce Reports, and persons seeking general or preliminary information are advised first to consult these reports.

Hongkong, through which most of the trade of southern China is now handled, is not politically a part of China and appears in the Maritime Customs statistics as a foreign territory. This has a misleading effect on the figures for that part of the country, and the situation is further complicated by the fact that the Government of Hongkong publishes no trade statistics. For information as to actual origin of the imports into southern China and the destinations of its exports it is necessary to depend either on the statistics of the countries of origin themselves, or on unofficial figures and estimates of the trade of Hongkong, of which the best are those published in the Supplements to Commerce Reports. Hongkong itself is a rocky island, which has no agriculture and in which only a few manufactured goods are produced.

PERIODICAL PUBLICATIONS ON CHINESE TRADE AND INDUSTRY.

In the absence of comprehensive official publications the current developments in Chinese trade and industry must be followed largely through periodicals. These have to be used with discretion, as much of the material needs verification; but if they are followed systematically the majority of the errors will be found to correct themselves, and the net information gained is indispensable for an up-to-date knowledge of the situation.

Very few periodicals in China can be described as trade journals, and these cover a limited field. The principal daily newspapers published in English have weekly editions, in which all items of importance are reprinted. There is usually a special commercial section. Nearly all of these papers are British owned. The sole American daily in China publishes no weekly edition and contains comparatively little commercial material. One of the two general periodicals containing the best material on commercial and industrial development is American owned and the other has devoted much attention to American interests. The following list includes all of the periodicals that would interest an American business house. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce maintains files of these and articles on important subjects appearing since the beginning of 1917 have been indexed. The most important periodicals are to be found in many large public libraries and in the offices of trade organizations and commercial-service agencies that handle Far Eastern work.

Weekly editions of daily newspapers:

North China Herald; Shanghai. British; the best of this class for central and northern China.

Hongkong Weekly Press and Overland Trade Report; Hongkong. British; probably the best of the class for southern China.

General periodicals published in China:

Far Eastern Review; Shanghai. A monthly, specializing in commerce, industry, and finance; on the whole, the best of the class. Formerly American owned, it has recently passed into British hands, but still gives much attention to American interests.

Millard's Review of the Far East; Shanghai. A new American weekly periodical which has rapidly acquired standing.

Weekly China Advertiser; Tientsin. Owned by Japanese and published in their interests; contains valuable information on the resources and raw materials of northern China and Manchuria not accessible elsewhere.

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Price and market reports:

Fortnightly Price Current and Market Report. Published by the Hongkong General Chamber of Commerce; contains market quotations, trade statistics, export freight rates, and a periodical report on the Canton silk market.

Weekly Circular of the British Chamber of Commerce of Hankow. Especially for export price quotations.

Weekly Cotton Piece Goods Report; Shanghai. Published by Noel, Murray & Co.

Weekly Cotton Market Report; Shanghai. Published by J. Spunt & Co.

Fortnightly Freight and Coal Market Report; Shanghai. Published by Wheelock & Co.

Miscellaneous periodicals relating to the Orient:

Asia; New York. Monthly, published by the American Asiatic Association, largely popular and pictorial, but valuable for descriptive material and discussion of general developments.

London and China Express; London. Weekly.

London and China Telegraph: London. Weekly; this and the preceding contain miscellaneous reprinted and abstracted material; not highly authoritative, but in a convenient form.

Eastern Engineering; London. Monthly technical supplement of the London and China Express.

The last three periodicals are published at 79 Gracechurch Street, London, E. C.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE AND GENERAL INFORMATION.

Books relating to China are numerous, but the proportion containing authoritative material on trade and economic conditions is small, and most of the information out of date. As regards most of the many books of travel and general description, there is really little choice. A large proportion of the books published in recent years have been devoted mainly to political and controversial topics. The books below noted are worth examination by anyone desiring a broad knowledge of the subject from a business point of view. Comparatively few of them are kept by the ordinary bookstores in this country, and inquiries should be directed to establishments that specialize in foreign books. In many cases they will have to be ordered from China.

Among the annual publications may be mentioned:

Rosenstock's Directory of China. The only classified business directory covering the whole country; it may be purchased separately, or in one volume with a directory of Manila. Published at 4 Canton Road, Shanghai.

Directory and Chronicle of China, Japan, etc. Not classified but contains fuller information on some details than Rosenstock's Directory. Published by the Hongkong Daily Press, 10a Des Voeux Road Central, Hongkong.

China Yearbook. The most comprehensive current reference book on China. Published by E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

China Stock and Share Handbook. Contains approximately complete data relating to companies whose shares are quoted on the Shanghai and Hongkong stock exchanges, together with miscellaneous information on financial conditions and foreign exchange. Published by North China Daily News, Shanghai.

China Mission Year Book. Of more interest to business men than the title implies; contains full reviews of commercial, industrial, and political development by competent authorities. Published by Mission Book Co., Shanghai.

Among miscellaneous books wholly or largely devoted to trade, industry, and finance, the following will be of interest and value:

New Atlas and Commercial Gazetteer of China. Just issued, and the only comprehensive work of the kind in existence. The cost is about $75. Published by the North China Daily News, Shanghai, 1918.

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Trade and Administration of China, by H. B. Morse. The best general introduction to the subject, though not up to date in all details. Published by Kelly & Walsh, Shanghai, 1913.

Official Guide to Eastern Asia: Vol. I, Manchuria and Korea; Vol. IV, China Proper. Published in Japanese interests by the Imperial Japanese Government Railways, 1913–1915; contains valuable data not accessible elsewhere, especially excellent series of maps.

Handbook of Business Training, by S. S. Chow. Contains, along with some elementary matter, detailed data on the procedure of the Chinese customs (with specimens of all documents in English and Chinese) and on local exporting and importing practices, brokerage, banking, insurance, etc. Published by Commercial Press, Shanghai, 2d ed., revised, 1916.

Handbook for China, by C. Crow. Primarily a guide book, the commercial information being brief and incidental, but useful as an introduction. Published by San Francisco News Co., San Francisco, 2d ed., revised, no date.

Finance in China, by S. R. Wagel. A discursive book, containing useful material. Published by North China Daily News, Shanghai, 1914.

Eastern Exchange, Currency, and Finance, by W. F. Spalding. Published by I. Pitman's Sons, London, 1917.

The Daily Exchange Quotations, by Sir C. Addis. Published by North China Daily News, Shanghai, 1917.

(The last two are recent and authoritative publications on the technical side of the subjects indicated.)

The Currency Problem in China, by Wen-Pin Wei. Deals with the historical rather than the technical side, and is useful mainly in connection with the projects of reform. 1914.

The Tariff Problem in China, by Chin Chu. Gives some details not easily accessible elsewhere and a discussion of the situation from the Chinese point of view. 1916.

Railway Problems in China, by Mongton Chih Hsu. A readable summary, not entirely free from inaccuracies. 1915.

(The three preceding are published by Columbia University, Longmans Green & Co., agents, New York).

Treaty Ports in China, by En-Sai Tai. Largely a compilation, containing useful material not assembled elsewhere. Columbia University Press Bookstore, New York.

Railway Enterprise in China, by P. H. Kent. The standard authority for the earlier history of the subject. E. Arnold, London, 1907.

The following are selected from a list of the best books on China, prepared by an American resident of many years standing and approved by competent critics, including the American commercial attaché. The material on trade and investment conditions contained in them is incidental, but the time that any business man may put into reading them will be well repaid by the broadening of his views of the general situation:

Encyclopedia Sinica, by Samuel Couling. Kelly & Walsh, Shanghai, 1917.

The Changing Chinese, by E. A. Ross. Century Co., New York, 1912.

China: An Interpretation, by J. W. Bashford. Abingdon Press, New York, 1916.

The Middle Kingdom, by S. Wells Williams. Scribner's, New York, 1907.

Chinese Characteristics, by A. H. Smith. F. H. Revell Co., New York, 15th ed.

Village and Town Life in China, by Y. K. Leong & L. K. Tao. G. Allen & Unwin, London, 1915.

A Sketch of Chinese History, by F. L. Hawks-Pott. Kelly & Walsh, Shanghai, new edition, revised 1915.

Contemporary Politics in the Far East, by S. K. Hornbeck. D. Appleton, New York, 1916.

Farmers of Forty Centuries, by F. H. King. Macmillan, New York, 2d ed.

Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire, by L. Richard, translated and revised by M. Kennelly. Tusewei Press, Shanghai, 1908.

Mineral Enterprise in China, by William F. Collins. Kelley & Walsh (Ltd.), Shanghai, 1917.

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 71

WEARING APPAREL IN BRAZIL

Prepared by

WILLIAM C. DOWNS
Commercial Attaché

PRICE, 10 CENTS
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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, June 15, 1918.

SIR: There is submitted herewith a report on the wearing-apparel market of Brazil, prepared by William C. Downs, commercial attaché at Rio de Janeiro. The report forms a part of an investigation into wearing apparel in South America, of which the results with regard to Chile and Argentina have been issued as Special Agents Series No. 168 and Miscellaneous Series No. 68, respectively.

While the value of the imports of textiles and wearing apparel that Brazil obtained from the United States increased by 336 per cent between 1913 and 1916, the writer of this report believes that the share of the United States "might have been much larger in volume had American manufacturers studied the Brazilian market more closely with a view to replacing goods that could not be obtained from Europe." Brazil offers a promising field for the sale of medium and high grade wearing apparel and American manufacturers still have an excellent opportunity to make and maintain good connections. The present survey was made both comprehensive and detailed, with the object of affording the prospective exporter as much assistance as he could obtain without visiting the country himself.

Respectfully,

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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WEARING APPAREL IN BRAZIL.

INTRODUCTION.

The principal features of any country that affect the wearing-apparel trade are the climatic characteristics, which are dependent on the geographical position of the country and its topographical peculiarities; the density of its population; and the degree of culture and education that the various classes of that population have attained.

It requires but a casual glance at the map to note that Brazil is the largest country in South America, but it is not always realized that it is considerably larger than the United States, exclusive of Alaska, having an extent of territory of 3,290,564 square miles. This vast territory stretches from Cape Branco, at about 34° 45′ west longitude, to the headwaters of the River Javary on the Peruvian frontier, at about 74° 15′ west longitude, a distance of nearly 2,400 miles. Its northernmost point is at latitude 5° 10′ north, on the boundary of Venezuela and British Guiana, and its southernmost at about 33° 45′ south. It measures, from the extreme north to south, 4,280 kilometers (2,658 miles) and has a seaboard on the Atlantic of 4,060 miles.

CLIMATE AND RAINFALL.

Practically all of Brazil lies within the Tropics, only the comparatively small triangle south of Santos being below the Tropic of Capricorn. Great variations of climate, however, are to be found even in the tropical portion of the country, and were average conditions to be taken it might be said that Brazil possesses almost a temperate climate. This is due in part to topographical conditions, differences in altitude, and atmospheric currents. In the north, especially in the great low-lying Amazon basin, probably at one time an immense inland sea, the climate is hot and moist; in the south it is more or less temperate and dry. Along the entire coast the burning heat of the tropical sun is softened by the sea breezes, and from the capital to the extreme south of the Republic the heat decreases so that the climate there becomes very cool.

In the northern States (Amazonas, Para, Maranhão, Ceara, Piauhy, Rio Grande do Norte, Parahyba, Alagoas, and Pernambuco) the maximum temperature varies between 90° and 100° F., the

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average between 79° and 84° F., and the minimum between 63° and 70° F. At Nictheroy and in the city of Rio de Janeiro the temperature sometimes rises to over 97°, but this extreme heat does not last for any great length of time and is moreover tempered by the sea breeze, on which account cases of sunstroke are rare. The average temperature is 72° to 74° F., and frequently in the winter season it falls as low as 53° F. In some cities of the State of Rio de Janeiro, such as Nova Friburgo, Petropolis, and Theresopolis, situated in the mountains at an elevation of nearly 3,000 feet, the temperature varies between 86° and 32° or less, the average being between 59° and 63°. In the States of São Paulo, Minas Geraes, Parana, Santa Catharina, and Rio Grande do Sul the temperature varies greatly according to altitude and proximity to the coast. In the mountainous parts it never rises above 79° F., the average being 61° to 70° F. and the lowest 32° to 52° F. Near the coast it is about 88° maximum, 70° average, and 39° minimum. In the inland States of Goyaz and Matto Grosso also the temperature shows great variation; the maximum is 90° to 106°, average 50° to 79°, and minimum 50°, although at times on the plateau of Goyaz the temperature falls below freezing point. Cuyaba is one of the hottest places in Brazil, the maximum being 106° and the minimum 50°.

The barometric pressure in the greater part of the States of Brazil fluctuates between 743½ millimeters (29¼ inches) and 770 millimeters (30¼ inches). The average pressure, according to the meteorologic observations, is 760 millimeters (30 inches) to 765 millimeters (30⅛ inches). In the central plateau of the Republic (Minas Geraes and Goyaz) and in some cities of the States of Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Parana, Santa Catharina, and Rio Grande do Sul, the barometric pressure is 690 millimeters (27⅛ inches) maximum, 630 millimeters (24¾ inches) minimum, and 670 millimeters (26⅜ inches) average. In the city of Rio de Janeiro the regularity of the variation of the barometric pressure according to the temperature is very apparent.

From the north to the south of Brazil, principally near the coast, the humidity is noticeable. Aside from the State of Ceara and the interior of that of Bahia, the moist heat is a characteristic climatic factor of the northern States. Above and below the Tropic of Capricorn, between 20° and 30° south latitude, the cold in general is more or less damp; there are, however, in the States of São Paulo, Minas Geraes, Parana, Rio Grande do Sul, and even Rio de Janeiro, some cities that from their altitude and other topographic conditions are remarkable for their dry cold.

The annual precipitation is very variable. Along the entire Brazilian coast, except in the State of Ceara, the average rainfall diminishes toward the south; it varies between 10 millimeters (0.39 inch) and 14 millimeters (0.55 inch) per day in the north; 8 millimeters (0.315 inch) and 9 millimeters (0.354 inch) in the central part; and 6 millimeters (0.236 inch) and 7 millimeters (0.275 inch) in the south.

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The following table shows the altitude, maximum and minimum temperatures, and annual rainfall of the principal commercial points in Brazil:

Localities.	Altitudes.	Maximum temperature.	Minimum temperature.	Rainfall.	Number of years of observations.
	Feet.	*Degrees.*	*Degrees.*	*Inches.*	
Para	23.33	92	67	97.7	12
Maranhão	98.42	93	70	96.7	2
Ceara	10.50	89	68	39.3	2
Manaos	131.23	99	66	87.8	5
Quixeramobim	649.60	97	66	23.9	9
Natal	25.59	87	67	49.8	2
Parahyba	14.43	93	64	47.5	2
Pernambuco	9.84	100	61	75.9	16
Joazeiro	1,223.75	105	59	11.3	4
Aracaju	14 43	88	67	40.0	4
Bahia	147.63	95	63	52.3	4
Ilheos	9.84	95	67	74.6	3
Cuyaba	771.00	106	39	63.0	5
Cannavieras	13.12	87	66	67.3	1
Theophilo Ottoni	941.60	96	49	68.0	2
Diamantina	3,969.80	77	48	64.7	1
Uberaba	2,493.43	100	32	74.2	6
S. Carlos do Pinhal	2,762.46	96	36	51.2	15
S. Joao del Rei	2,887.13	93	33	54.0	4
Ribeirao Preto	1,837.26	104	35	56.4	15
Barbacena	3,750.00	87	36	69.5	5
Nova Friburgo	2,874.00	87	34	54.3	5
Juiz de Fora	2,263.77	97	37	56.0	11
Rio de Janeiro	216.53	102	50	43.3	50
Campinas	2,165.30	98	32	56.8	15
São Paulo	2,496.71	101	37	52.8	15
Santos	16.40	101	42	52.8	15
Curytiba	2,979.00	95	47	58.3	23
Blumenau	92.00	95	38	65.0	16
Florianopolis	13.12	89	46	54.4	3
Pelatos	28.70	105	38	48.7	14
Rio Grande do Sul	52 49	90	34	39.0	9

POPULATION AND SOCIAL GROUPS.

The present population of Brazil is not at all in proportion to the extent of territory or to its productive power. In 1912 the population of Brazil was estimated at 24,618,000, or an average of 7.5 persons per square mile. The inhabitants, however, are very unevenly distributed over the wide extent of territory. While the State of Rio de Janeiro (exclusive of the Federal District, which has a density of 1,814 per square mile) shows a density of about 50 per square mile, the great State of Amazonas has an average of only one person for every 2 square miles. An examination of the chart of the distribution of the population in Brazil shows that the inhabited part of the country, and consequently the part that is interesting to study with a view to the wearing-apparel industry, is practically reduced to a wide band of land running along all the coast from Manaos to Rio Grande do Sul and becoming broader toward the south. Throughout the extent of this coastal band most of the population is concentrated in the large ports of entry, usually the capitals of the respective States, and a few large cities not far inland and connected with the ports by railroads. The principal ports and inland cities, the States

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in which they are located, and their population in 1912 are as follows:

Cities.	States.	Population (1912).	Cities.	States.	Population (1912).
Manaos	Amazonas	80,931	Bello Horizonte	Minas Geraes	40,256
Belem (Para)	Para	275,167	Santos	São Paulo	86,376
Fortaleza (Ceara)	Ceara	70,000	São Paulo	do	400,000
São Luiz (Maranhão)	Maranhão	57,709	Paranagua	Parana	22,000
Recife (Pernambuco)	Pernambuco	216,484	Curityba	do	65,000
São Salvador (Bahia)	Bahia	348,130	Florianopolis	Santa Catharina	40,000
Maceio	Alagoas	68,000	Rio Grande do Sul	Rio Grande do Sul	47,600
Victoria	Espirito Santo	20,054	Pelotas	do	65,769
Rio de Janeiro	Rio de Janeiro	975,818	Porto Alegre	do	150,343
Nictheroy	do	86,726			

From these particulars it may be concluded that, aside from four cities in the north, it is to the coastal States of the center and south that the manufacturers of wearing apparel should direct their attention and that it is principally in the States included in the Temperate Zone that the widest market for apparel may be found, taking into consideration that the population is the densest in those regions and that the needs are greater because of climatic variations and the greater culture of the inhabitants.

Before considering specifically the subject of clothing in Brazil it will be well to study briefly the domestic life of the Brazilian people in order to form a general idea of their tastes, their needs, and their tendencies in the matter of wearing apparel.

The population of Brazil may be said to be composed of four general groups: (1) Foreigners of different nationalities established in the large cities and in the Provinces; (2) Brazilians inhabiting the large cities and forming the well-to-do class; (3) Brazilians living in the interior and composing the laboring class; (4) Indians, uncivilized or semicivilized. Only the first three classes need be considered in connection with the sale of wearing apparel. In the matter of clothes the Brazilian gentleman believes that he must sacrifice himself to the European styles and cuts. Black cloth is worn, not only in the large cities but also in the interior cities of less importance. Even in Manaos it is not rare to find the silk hat in use. The women, however, show themselves somewhat more practical, dressing generally in lighter stuffs but always retaining their Parisian stamp. Costumes of light cloth and toilettes of madras, of surah, of foulard, of mousseline, of satin, and of silk hold the place of honor with persons in good society.

The laboring classes of the Brazilian population necessarily follow less the dictates of fashion and dress only in the light cottonades of domestic manufacture.

The foreigners who form part of Brazilian society can not be regarded as contributing in any appreciable degree to the trade in wearing apparel or as having any influence upon it other than reflecting European style. On account of the high cost of living in Brazil, especially the high cost of all classes of clothing, this element of the population enter the country with their wardrobes well supplied, and renew them periodically when they go to Europe or the United

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States on their vacations. Their purchases in the country are confined to small articles of secondary importance.

The foreigners of the laboring or even bourgeois classes settled in the country and not possessed of sufficient means to take periodical voyages to their native countries can in general be grouped with the Brazilians, from whom they are differentiated only by their spirit of economy, which the Brazilians lack. These foreigners form a group of considerable importance; they supply themselves with wearing apparel in the country itself, and those who belong to the class of employees give their preference to ready-made clothing.

The Brazilian himself is a factor of prime importance for commerce in general. Under the generous climate of Brazil one is inclined to lead an easy life, to enjoy the present hour without apprehensions for the morrow; economy is not yet considered a necessary virtue, and it might be said that this word does not form part of the Brazilian vocabulary. This peculiar character of the South American clientele well explains the violent fluctuations characteristic of Brazilian commerce. Thus the employee considers that his monthly salary is the revenue of a capital that he possesses. The plantation owner loves to believe that his land is capital and what it produces is fixed revenue. Both spend their income as if they were clipping a coupon from a Government bond. If, however, the harvests fail or if the employee happens to lose his position all transactions diminish. There is no reserve to maintain the standard of life adopted during the years of abundance. The Brazilian woman especially has a pronounced taste for spending liberally.

In Brazil the different social classes are divided very much as are those of Europe or North America. Aside from the upper class of fashionable society, everyone dresses in much the same way. Patent-leather shoes, woolen clothes, silk cravats, collars and cuffs are not the privilege of any class. The butcher boys, the clerks, the middle classes, the business men, dress in the same style; the only difference is in the cut of the clothes. Brazilians of the interior are, in general, agriculturists or farm or factory laborers and are more modest in their tastes. Their clothing consists of trousers and coat, made of cotton cloth of domestic manufacture and generally purchased ready-made.

EXTENT OF MARKET FOR WEARING APPAREL.

The market for wearing apparel, as far as it concerns the American exporter or merchant, does not extend beyond the large coast cities and the most important inland cities, which can be easily reached by rail from the ports of entry. The smaller interior towns and scattered settlements as a rule are supplied from these places. The population residing in the interior and outside of the larger cities would not in any case furnish a great demand for the class of goods that would interest American merchants. On the other hand, the demand in the cities themselves is much larger than would be expected and not at all in proportion to the population as judged by North American standards. This is due not only to the character of the people but also to the exigencies of the climate. Brazilians of the middle and well-to-do classes always wish to appear well and fashionably

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dressed, and they are willing to expend their money freely to accomplish this result. It must be added that the result can not be accomplished with the same amount of clothes as in a more temperate climate. It is a recognized fact that the powerful chemical action of the hot Brazilian sun causes silks, satins, laces, and other fine fabrics to deteriorate and even disintegrate with surprising rapidity. The life of costumes of such materials is comparatively short. Dresses of coarser materials and men's suits must be sent with unusual frequency to the cleaning establishments to erase the traces of free perspiration and restore the shapes distorted by drenching tropical rains. Not only must exterior and interior wearing apparel be renewed more frequently but also more changes are required for the sake of comfort, health, and appearance. The Brazilian cities are therefore much more extensive markets for wearing apparel than their size would indicate.

These fundamental characteristics and conditions will remain unchanged as the country develops; and as the interior becomes more thickly populated and inland towns grow into cities the market for wearing apparel will expand much more rapidly and broadly than the increase of population. Brazil accordingly may be considered not only a good present market but also an exceptionally promising one for the future. To what extent it will be supplied by home production or from abroad will depend on the industrial development of the country. The wealth of Brazil has always been derived from agriculture and natural products. It is only in recent years that an impetus has been given to manufacturing. It will be well to study what progress has been made in lines allied to wearing apparel.

DOMESTIC PRODUCTION OF TEXTILES.

COTTON GOODS.

Before undertaking the study of wearing apparel itself it will be useful to review the textile industry in Brazil with regard to the raw material employed and the consumption of the manufactured products. As few or no textiles are exported by Brazil it may be assumed that practically the entire production goes into final consumption in the form of wearing apparel.

The great development that the manufacturing industry, particularly that of cotton goods, has enjoyed in Brazil is worthy of note. Since the proclamation of the Republic the Government has not ceased to encourage home production, establishing entrance duties on manufactured products that place imported goods in a very unfavorable position as regards competition. An idea may be formed of the protection afforded to the domestic manufacturers from the following figures compiled by the Foreign Chamber of Commerce of Brazil, comparing the percentage of duties on textiles to cost price in Brazil, Argentina, and Mexico: Textiles of pure wool—179 per cent in Brazil, 50 per cent in Argentina, and 103 per cent in Mexico; lisle-thread stockings—187 per cent in Brazil, 56 per cent in Argentina, and 22 per cent in Mexico; textiles of silk and cotton—314 per cent in Brazil, 12 per cent in Argentina, and 28 per cent in Mexico. As a result of this extreme protection, capitalists

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have been attracted by the high profits offered, and in a few years the number of factories has greatly increased. The progress of the textile industry has been particularly noticeable during the last 10 years, as is proved by the following comparisons: In 1905 there existed in Brazil 110 cotton mills; at present there are 250. In 1905 the Brazilian cotton mills possessed 734,928 spindles and 26,420 looms; to-day they have 1,505,000 spindles and 49,648 looms. In 1905 these mills employed 39,159 workmen and they now employ 72,493. In 1905 the capital invested was 193,708,127 milreis ($46,490,000),* and in 1915 it had risen to 315,024,000 milreis ($75,606,000). The value of the domestic production of cotton textiles in 1905 was 121,043,500 milreis ($29,050,000) and in 1915 was 239,135,000 milreis ($57,392,000). During 1905 the production amounted to about 262,600,000 yards; to-day it is calculated at 437,600,000 yards. In 1905 the motive power aggregated 31,718 horsepower, and there existed no mill moved by electricity. The development of electric and other motive power is shown in the following table, giving the number of factories and looms in each State of Brazil operated by different kinds of power in 1915:

States.	Steam.		Electricity.		Water.		Gas.		Mixed power.	
	Factories.	Looms.	Factories.	Looms.	Factories.	Looms.	Factories.	Looms.	Factories.	Looms.
Alagoas	6	962	.....	.....	2	161	.....	.....	1	70
Bahia	4	2,460	.....	.....	1	600	.....	.....	2	2,516
Federal Capital	1	.....	16	6,956	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	4,131
Espirito Santo	1	.....	1	110	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....
Maranhão	2	867	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	400
Minas Geraes	3	87	18	1,498	9	696	1	49	13	1,798
Rio Grande do Norte	1	412	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Rio Grande do Sul	6	980	2	270	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Parana	1	.....	1	44	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pernambuco	3	2,172	2	822	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	160
Piauhy	1	156	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Rio de Janeiro	.....	.....	7	984	3	3,720	2	245	5	1,500
Santa Catharina	.....	.....	1	3	1	5	.....	.....	4	165
São Paulo	2	147	26	7,361	1	150	.....	.....	9	4,083
Sergipe	5	990	.....	.....	1	300	2	488	.....	.....
Ceara	1	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	20	.....	.....
Total	37	9,433	74	18,048	18	5,632	6	802	43	14,823

From 1905 to 1915 the number of factories increased 136 per cent, the number of spindles 99⅓ per cent, the capital invested 62⅓ per cent, the value of the production 86 per cent, the number of employees 86 per cent, and the yardage 60 per cent.

A remarkable result of this great development of the cotton-manufacturing industry in Brazil is that the prices at which the domestic product is sold are much lower than the prices of similar imported products. A comparison of wholesale prices in 1914 shows that while English, French, and American bleached shirtings cost $4.05 to $5.10 per piece of 20 meters (21.87 yards), the corresponding quality of domestic production cost $1.94 to $2.45 per piece, i. e., from 18.5 cents to 23 cents per yard, as compared with 8.87 cents to 11.20 cents. This is due to the intense competition among the native

* Throughout this report, except where otherwise stated, conversions have been made at the rate of 24 cents to the paper milreis.

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mills, which prevents them from reaping the full benefit of the protection granted. Another remarkable fact is that while the prices of foreign cotton goods have shown a rising tendency, those of domestic goods have fallen not only in gold values but also in Brazilian paper-currency values. A falling in gold values would be expected to follow the decline in the value of the paper milreis, in which wages are paid and the home-grown cotton purchased; the fall in paper values is due to competition.

The following table shows the selling prices of different kinds of Brazilian cotton goods from 1907 to 1913:

Kinds of goods.	Prices in reis[a] per meter.						
	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Cotton prints:							
Quality A	480	480	480	480	480	460	450
Quality B 24	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	440	400
Quality B 16	.....	.....	.....	405	405	405	395
Quality BBB	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	330	250
Quality D	500	500	500	480	470	470	460
Quality F 72	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	570	520
Quality H	520	520	520	520	520	520	480
Quality J	480	475	470	440	450	450	450
Quality T	.....	540	540	540	540	540	490
Quality B	425	415	400	400	.....	.....	.....
Quality J L	.....	630	600	.....	.....	.....	.....
Quality D L	.....	.....	.....	580	570	.....	.....
Quality T T	.....	.....	.....	.....	510	510	500
Quality A 80	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	420	400
Unbleached goods:							
Type 1	190	185	180	205	215	200	170
Type 2	220	215	200	240	240	225	220
Type 3	330	320	300	320	320	310	290
Colored goods:							
Type 1	320	340	330	390	380	360	350
Type 2	260	260	260	280	300	270	250
Type 3	520	480	480	480	520	510	500
Bleached goods: Type 1	350	355	340	370	360	355	340

Bleached cotton.	Prices in milreis[a] per piece of 20 meters.						
	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Quality A 5	7$600	7$600	7$400	7$400	7$360	7$360	7$360
Quality B 28	6$780	6$700	6$650	6$170	6$160	6$160	6$150
Quality C 28	5$650	5$650	5$650	5$430	5$420	5$420	6$400
Quality F L	10$120	10$120	9$480	9$420	9$420	9$400	9$380
Quality F 50	9$600	9$690	10$100	10$070	10$070	10$070	10$050
Quality F 60	10$260	10$260	9$880	9$880	9$380	9$380	9$350
Quality F 80	10$180	10$180	10$070	9$750	9$750	9$750	9$700
Quality F B	10$360	10$360	10$260	10$260	9$930	9$930	9$930
Quality M 27½	7$540	7$520	7$500	7$400	7$150	7$120	7$000
Quality R A	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7$550	7$500
Quality S	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5$950	5$880
Quality A 21	6$480	6$480	6$450	6$450	6$450	6$170	.....
Quality B 28	6$460	6$460	6$460	.....	.....	.....	.....
Quality A L	.....	7$620	7$600	7$450	.....	.....	.....
Quality A 19	.....	7$500	7$500	7$500	7$450	7$450	.....

[a] The Brazilian milreis is equal to 1,000 reis and amounts in milreis and reis are commonly written with the dollar sign where United Stated usage would prescribe the decimal point. The Brazilian paper milreis before the war was valued at about 32 cents.

Tariff protection has also had the effect of stimulating the manufacture of woolen and silk goods in Brazil. It is practically impossible to obtain separate statistics regarding the production of these classes, as the data concerning different kinds of textiles are not segregated. The following table, however, giving the number of mills,

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the capital, the production, and the number of employees in all the textile manufactories in Brazil, by States, shows the status of this industry in 1914:

States.	Number of mills.	Capital.	Production.	Number of employees.
Alagoas	10	$1,675,500	$1,770,000	2,010
Bahia	13	6,154,200	4,625,400	5,505
Ceara	10	732,000	786,000	990
Federal District	35	30,374,400	20,961,000	14,035
Espirito Santo	3	387,000	330,000	230
Maranhão	13	3,801,000	3,144,000	3,870
Minas Geraes	59	7,182,600	6,133,700	8,048
Parahyba do Norte	1	510,000	540,000	580
Parana	8	205,500	183,600	273
Pernambuco	9	5,865,000	4,785,000	3,720
Piauhy	1	630,000	330,000	300
Rio Grande do Norte	1	840,000	246,000	280
Rio Grande do Sul	12	2,740,500	3,000,000	2,582
Rio de Janeiro	27	15,162,000	10,110,000	7,991
Santa Catharina	15	525,000	414,600	463
São Paulo	78	35,109,600	25,559,200	23,590
Sergipe	8	2,534,700	1,890,000	2,979
Total	303	114,429,000	84,808,500	77,446

Another natural consequence of the Brazilian high protective tariff and the increase in the number of factories in the country has been the progressive decrease in the imports of manufactured and semimanufactured goods and the decrease in the exports of raw cotton. According to the official statistics, the imports of cotton yarn for weaving were approximately $1,137,000 in 1912, $1,088,000 in 1913, $543,000 in 1914, $360,000 in 1915, and $990,000 in 1916. The recovery from the downward tendency in 1916 was due to the short cotton crop in Brazil, which made it necessary to import both raw cotton and yarn to meet the requirements of the native mills. The downward tendency is even more marked in the imports of manufactured goods, the partial recovery in 1916 being due to the cause cited. These imports were $20,787,000 in 1912, $18,787,000 in 1913, $7,117,000 in 1914, $5,250,000 in 1915, and $11,836,000 in 1916. On the other hand, the exports of raw cotton were as follows: 16,774 tons in 1912, 37,424 tons in 1913, 30,434 tons in 1914, 5,228 tons in 1915, and 1,070 tons in 1916. It is estimated that the Brazilian cotton mills have to-day an average annual consumption of about 50,000 tons of cotton, produced in normal times within the country itself.

From the foregoing data an idea may be formed of the Brazilian consumption of cotton piece goods, of both domestic and foreign manufacture, which may be summarized as follows:

Items.	1912	1913	1914	1915
Domestic products	$63,965,000	$61,471,000	$72,570,000	$46,104,000
Imports	17,392,000	15,140,000	5,019,000	11,285,000
Total	81,357,000	76,611,000	77,589,000	57,389,000

As a general conclusion regarding the cotton-manufacturing industry in Brazil, it may be said that for the last three or four years 80

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to 90 per cent of the cotton textiles consumed in Brazil have been of domestic manufacture and that the raw materials, except the aniline dyes, are of Brazilian production.

WOOLEN AND SILK GOODS.

Although the woolen-goods industry in Brazil is not so well developed as the cotton-goods industry, it is nevertheless of considerable importance. During the last few years the number of mills has considerably increased, especially since sheep raising in the southern States has been more vigorously pushed. In 1914, the latest year for which statistics are available, the number of woolen mills in Brazil was placed at 54, with a total capital of 60,669,000 milreis ($14,560,560), production to the value of 152,087,000 milreis ($36,500,880), and 12,332 operatives. The industry may be expected to make further progress in proportion to the development of sheep raising, especially the introduction of better stock with longer fleece. The production of woolen goods has not increased during the last two years as has the cotton-milling industry, owing to the European war, which has prevented the importation of yarn in sufficient quantity.

The imports into Brazil of wool for manufacturing purposes from 1913 to 1916 were as follows:

Items.	1913	1914	1915	1916
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds*	*Pounds.*
Raw wool	1,035,000	185,000	113,000	1,047,000
Wool for embroidery	73,000	36,000	13,000	20,000
Woolen yarn	3,775,000	684,000	165,000	628,000
Total	4,883,000	905,000	291,000	1,695,000

The same phenomenon is to be noted in the imports of manufactured woolen goods, which amounted to about $3,500,000 in 1913, decreased to a very small amount in 1915, and rose to about $1,500,000 in 1916.

Data as to the different classes of woolen goods manufactured in Brazil do not exist for the last few years. There can be given only those relating to woolen piece goods for 1911, 1912, and 1913, which are as follows:

Kinds of goods.	1911		1912		1913	
	Yards.	*Value.*	*Yards.*	*Value.*	*Yards.*	*Value.*
Cotton and wool	293,000	$85,000	415,000	$127,000	558,000	$162,000
Pure wool	1,606,000	2,338,000	1,858,000	2,703,000	2,245,000	3,266,000
Total	1,899,000	2,423,000	2,273,000	2,830,000	2,803,000	3,428,000

The woolen-manufacturing industry is constantly increasing in importance, and even to-day is making progress, in spite of the difficulty of obtaining certain grades of wool and aniline dyes.

All the factories listed manufacture textiles for men's clothes similar to American and European goods; also shoe materials and women's

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dress goods, except the latest novelties, which are imported. For men's wear the clothes are in combed yarn from 350 to 440 grams per square meter (equivalent to about 10.322 to 12.977 ounces per square yard); in carded yarn, up to 500 grams per square meter (14.747 ounces per square yard); and in overcoating material, up to 800 grams per square meter (about 23.595 ounces per square yard). The prevailing taste in colors is for black, blue, blue mixtures, and gray and gray mixtures. As a rule, the interior of the country demands the same shades as the large cities, the preference being accentuated for the mixed styles, tan, olive, beige, and khaki. The numbers used for carded yarn are 1/8 to 1/20; for combed yarn, 2/40 to 2/70. Half wool is not in great demand. Much of the yarn used in the domestic mills is spun from wool from Rio Grande do Sul, both carded and combed. The finer combed yarns at present come from England and the United States. Prior to the war they were imported mostly from France and Belgium. The foreign spinners are represented by resident agents in Rio de Janeiro, who receive direct orders from the mills. The French and Belgians generally sold against draft at 90 days sight; since the war the terms have been somewhat shortened. The imported yarns are delivered in mixed colors, plain colors, or cream color (ecru). Under existing conditions the prices are subject to great fluctuations. In April, 1917, the number 2/58 ecru, 3A, was quoted at 19 shillings per kilo ($2.10 per pound) f. o. b. English ports.

Owing to the great fluctuations, it is almost impossible to give prices for manufactured goods. It may be stated, however, that at present the average wholesale price of light woolen goods for summer wear is about 17 milreis per meter ($3.73 per yard). Protected by the high customs duties, the standard woolen goods of domestic manufacture are rapidly replacing the imported goods. There always remains, however, a good market for fancy materials and novelties of pure wool, especially for women's wear and for linings. Linings are not manufactured in the country, but normally are imported almost exclusively from Belgium.

Detailed data regarding the production of silk goods in Brazil are not available. There are, however, several mills of considerable importance in the States of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo. Statistics of production are obtainable only for the latter State. The figures for the production of textiles and various articles of wearing apparel in São Paulo in 1915 are as follows:

Kinds of textiles.	Yards.	Value.	Kinds of textiles.	Yards.	Value.
Cotton textiles, unbleached, dyed and printed	125,208,175	$13,624,000	Silk ribbons	343,933	$35,000
Woolen and cotton, and wool textiles	675,990	953,000	Shirts and drawers of cotton, wool, and cotton and wool mixtures	[a] 483,805	179,000
Jute and linen textiles	36,594,918	4,019,000	Stockings	[b] 1,952,050	261,000
Silk textiles	144,645	159,000	Blankets and shawls	[a] 710,214	1,249,000
Cotton remnants	8,182,468	616,000			
Laces, ribbons, and embroideries	6,545,732	320,000	Total		21,415,000

[a] Number. [b] Pairs.

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DOMESTIC PRODUCTION OF WEARING APPAREL.

As has been shown, a great part of the material for the manufacture of wearing apparel in Brazil, except woolen and silk goods, is of domestic production, and a portion of the woolen and silk goods is of local production. It remains to be seen how these materials are converted into articles ready to wear.

Generally speaking, the wearing-apparel manufacturing industry in Brazil is one of house or individual labor or of small local shops. Very few large establishments exist that manufacture on a wholesale scale and sell to the trade throughout the country. The most notable exception to this system is in the case of stockings and woven underwear, for making which there are several large and well-equipped mills in different States of Brazil. According to the latest data, the number of such mills is about 30, capitalized at about 7,000,000 milreis (paper), employing over 2,000 operatives, and producing annually goods to the value of over 7,000,000 milreis.

In the capitals and larger cities, the market for ready-made clothing is confined almost entirely to the employee and small-merchant class, and to the laboring class. The majority of the fairly well-to-do class supply their needs from tailors, individual dressmakers, and the larger tailoring and dressmaking establishments. In cities such as Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo the ready-made clothing of better quality is sold by the larger department stores, which sell only the product of their own tailoring or dressmaking establishments or suits made up for them under contract with small individual tailors, mostly Syrians. The prices of such stores do not differ much from those charged by individual tailors for the same qualities and styles.

The products of the establishments that manufacture on a wholesale scale are as a rule sold in the interior of the country and are bought by perhaps four-fifths of the population. Of such establishments there are in Rio de Janeiro six or seven, well-installed, with cutting machines, which manufacture men's, women's, and children's clothing of cheap and medium grades. In this respect the State of São Paulo is more advanced than Rio de Janeiro, having larger factories with better and more complete installations. In the city of São Paulo there are six large companies with a capital of about $160,000, employing about 800 workmen and turning out products valued at $345,000 per annum.

The materials employed, methods of manufacturing, and comparative costs of ready-made and custom-made clothing will be discussed under the headings "Men's Clothing" and "Women's Clothing."

Factory production of men's shirts, collars, and cuffs has also reached some degree of development. In the city of Rio de Janeiro there are about a dozen well-equipped shirt factories that manufacture for the trade. This industry, however, has attained greater proportions in São Paulo, which may be said to supply practically all the commerce of the interior of the country. Practically four-fifths of the population of Brazil purchase only shirts of national make, the imports being confined to the higher-grade dress shirts and certain classes of negligee shirts, worn in the larger cities. The shirts of domestic production are almost entirely the cheap and medium

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grades. In the case of shirts with starched or fancy bosoms, only the body of the shirt, as a rule, is made in the Brazilian factories, the bosoms being imported from Europe ready to be inserted when the shirts are made up. The same factories also make collars and cuffs, but their production is usually confined to articles of cotton, linen collars and cuffs being imported mostly from England and France.

Another branch of the wearing-apparel industry that has attained considerable proportions in Brazil is the manufacture of corsets. Here again the tariff furnishes ample protection to the domestic article, the import duties at the present rate of exchange (12d.) being equivalent to $3.25 on a cotton corset and to $8.10 on a silk corset. Obviously the Brazilian corsets that sell to the consumer at $1 to $3 need fear no competition from abroad. This draws the line distinctly between the two classes of manufacturers existing in Brazil and determines the classes of goods that they produce. The wholesale manufacturers make, in general, only the cheaper grades of corsets and sell to the big department stores and smaller retail establishments. The makers of the better grades work only on order to measure, and sell to the individual buyers of the well-to-do class. The details of this industry will be studied in a later section.

There is also a certain amount of factory production of gloves, but not on a large scale; there exist in Rio de Janeiro only three establishments that might be called factories, employing about 50 workers. In all the cities there are small glove makers, who fill individual orders from measurements.

IMPORT STATISTICS.

Brazil is an exporter of agricultural, mineral, and other raw products, and not of manufactured goods of any importance. Some slight trade in cotton goods has been developed with Uruguay and Argentina, but this is confined entirely to piece goods and does not include any manufactured clothing. Therefore, as regards the wearing-apparel trade, only statistics of imports have to be considered.

Generally speaking, wearing apparel may be divided into four or five general classifications, determined by kinds of material used—cotton, wool, linen, silk, and vegetable silk. Each of these classes is subject to a great number of subdivisions, but unfortunately for manufacturers who desire detailed statistics for purposes of comparison it is the general practice of governmental statistical bureaus to group under one general head articles composed of the same material which pay the same rate of customs duties. Only a few special articles that may compete with domestic production or that may pay different rates of duty are separately listed. In the case of Brazil separate figures can be obtained only in regard to cotton neckties, hosiery, lace, silk ribbons, neckties, laces, and braids. Everything else is included under the general headings of cotton, wool, linen, and silk wearing apparel, piece goods of the same materials, and manufactured goods not specified, of cotton, wool, linen, silk, and vegetable silk.

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IMPORTS BY CLASSES OF GOODS.

Since the imports of piece goods and manufactured textiles have a direct relation to the wearing-apparel trade, the figures regarding them are given in the following tables for 1913, 1914, and 1916, as well as the imports into Brazil of the few articles of wearing apparel specified in the statistics.

The original figures are given in gold as well as paper milreis, and conversions have been made from the amounts stated in gold milreis at the rate of 54 cents.

Articles.	1913	1914	1916
COTTON.			
Neckties	$4,700	$1,700	$900
Hosiery	355,900	179,000	271,700
Lace and fringes	913,600	270,700	316,300
Wearing apparel	1,110,000	432,200	425,500
Piece goods:			
Bleached	1,359,400	519,200	861,900
Unbleached	188,100	21,400	156,000
Printed	454,200	114,400	318,300
Dyed	2,483,300	939,200	1,951,400
Other	7,850,100	3,120,100	5,437,300
Manufactures, other	3,250,100	1,186,000	1,676,500
Total	17,969,400	6,783,900	11,415,800
WOOL.			
Piece goods	2,696,200	1,025,500	1,262,100
Wearing apparel	78,400	36,300	30,800
Manufactures, other	349,600	139,700	107,100
Total	3,124,200	1,201,500	1,400,000
LINEN.			
Braids and trimmings	5,500	4,100	3,500
Wearing apparel	85,100	32,100	32,600
Piece goods	1,718,600	700,400	981,200
Manufactures, other	126,800	73,600	65,600
Total	1,936,000	900,200	1,082,900
SILK.			
Ribbons	198,100	69,900	71,000
Neckties	27,300	14,200	13,900
Braids and trimmings	30,900	6,700	5,160
Lace	4,000	4,450	7,380
Wearing apparel	38,900	22,900	44,280
Piece goods	259,800	85,800	240,200
Manufactures, other	235,500	85,860	177,600
Total	794,500	289,810	559,520
VEGETABLE SILK.			
Piece goods	79,500	63,100	198,500
Manufactures, other	45,600	19,100	.....
Total	125,100	82,200	198,500
Grand total	23,949,200	9,257,610	14,656,720

The disturbed conditions at the beginning of the European war resulted in an enormous shrinkage of imports during the second half of the calendar year 1914, so that the entries of wearing apparel and textiles into Brazil for that year were over 61 per cent less than for 1913, a year that may be taken as representing normal conditions. During 1915 and 1916, new sources of supply having been found for some materials and readjustments of international commercial finance having taken place, there was a gradual recovery,

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so that for 1916 the imports were only 39 per cent less than those of 1913. The difference was principally in cotton and woolen goods and materials, the domestic production of which largely increased during the last three years. In silk goods the loss amounted to only 30 per cent, while in vegetable silk there was an actual increase of 59 per cent.

In manufactured wearing apparel alone the imports for 1916 were 60 per cent less than those for 1913, indicating that conditions had stimulated home industry in the making up of materials at the expense of the imported finished product. Here again the loss was chiefly in cotton and woolen goods, silk goods actually showing an increase. Linen wearing apparel also showed a decrease, which is accounted for by the disappearance of Germany and Austria from the market; the item, however, is unimportant. Cotton hosiery showed a loss of only 24 per cent, owing to the fact that the United States, Switzerland, Spain, and Italy have been able to supply the grades formerly obtained from Germany and Austria. England and France, in spite of home conditions, have also been able to increase slightly their sales in this line.

IMPORTS BY COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN.

The following table shows the imports of textiles and wearing apparel into Brazil in 1913, 1914, and 1916, by the countries of origin whose trade in any one of the three years amounted to $2,000 or more:

Articles and countries.	1913	1914	1916
COTTON GOODS.			
Hosiery:			
France	$46,760	$20,430	$48,670
Germany	279,600	144,530	2,890
Italy	370	210	6,730
Spain	3,610	2,370	23,560
Switzerland	100	700	9,840
United Kingdom	12,840	5,990	16,030
United States	5,080	2,670	160,550
Uruguay	5,800	1,570	1,780
Lace, braid, and trimmings:			
Austria-Hungary	11,810	4,920	.....
Belgium	38,700	9,710	.....
France	92,390	29,600	51,510
Germany	367,270	106,750	1,090
Netherlands	2,230	1,170	630
Italy	64,670	24,090	45,700
Portugal	20	.....	8,030
Spain	15,240	4,050	14,590
Switzerland	93,740	20,100	41,920
United Kingdom	199,500	61,830	99,830
United States	14,700	4,980	42,830
Uruguay	.....	.....	8,780
Piece goods:			
Bleached—			
France	15,330	2,890	2,490
Germany	17,840	6,530	.....
Italy	7,080	11,440	3,070
Switzerland	125,210	56,150	53,190
United Kingdom	1,169,360	432,260	774,390
United States	12,640	1,800	25,650
Uruguay	8,740	6,040	3,040
Dyed—			
Austria-Hungary	7,110	2,190	.....
Belgium	53,430	7,120	.....
France	54,750	18,920	2,200
Germany	66,860	35,840	.....
Italy	47,050	8,580	21,100
Netherlands	2,740	730	.....
Switzerland	12,710	4,960	24,750
United Kingdom	2,187,850	847,810	1,873,670
United States	34,770	11,280	23,340
Uruguay	14,760	1,740	5,080

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Articles and countries.	1913	1914	1816
COTTON GOODS—continued.			
Piece goods—Continued.			
Printed—			
Austria-Hungary	$11,100	$4,280	.....
Belgium	3,520	.....	.....
France	8,490	5,520	$50
Germany	22,080	8,550	430
Italy	5,010	230	.....
Spain	.....	.....	2,600
Switzerland	3,070	.....	.....
United Kingdom	386,940	93,550	309,040
United States	2,040	.....	3,910
Uruguay	9,810	2,250	2,230
Unbleached—			
Netherlands	4,400	190	.....
United Kingdom	173,440	17,850	154,100
United States	3,320	.....	570
Other—			
Argentina	3,490	5,910	8,170
Austria-Hungary	215,650	55,700	.....
Belgium	373,740	162,020	.....
France	395,140	180,970	148,990
Germany	1,199,410	441,250	860
Italy	555,350	223,390	156,900
Netherlands	27,060	8,160	3,100
Portugal	1,600	1,420	5,290
Spain	5,330	1,720	6,920
Switzerland	266,910	99,340	303,040
United Kingdom	4,658,500	1,834,320	4,305,220
United States	80,990	42,870	474,520
Uruguay	63,760	58,160	21,910
Wearing apparel:			
Austria-Hungary	234,780	58,350	.....
Belgium	35,850	12,960	.....
France	231,670	98,820	108,530
Germany	261,070	72,360	3,120
Italy	31,710	12,070	10,200
Portugal	69,100	47,900	120,560
Switzerland	9,210	4,700	22,480
United Kingdom	182,130	98,040	103,030
United States	41,030	17,550	54,510
Uruguay	9,020	5,900	620
Other cotton manufactures:			
Austria-Hungary	167,960	40,430	.....
Belgium	38,540	23,230	.....
France	415,890	149,240	201,310
Germany	943,990	303,400	3,950
Italy	61,700	58,730	90,530
Netherlands	3,300	5,640	8,500
Portugal	116,760	35,210	54,490
Spain	1,850	2,710	11,190
Switzerland	249,610	58,910	131,980
United Kingdom	1,115,760	455,160	909,760
United States	95,100	40,710	255,520
Uruguay	11,410	7,580	3,100
LINEN GOODS.			
Braids and trimmings: Germany	2,650	1,810	.....
Piece goods:			
Argentina	29,510	16,310	.....
Austria-Hungary	3,930	1,600	.....
Belgium	490,750	235,690	2,820
France	242,680	104,610	46,680
Germany	59,870	20,940	.....
Italy	17,560	3,230	2,330
Netherlands	4,740	540	.....
Portugal	.....	.....	3,160
Spain	.....	.....	5,390
Switzerland	2,920	920	24,340
United Kingdom	861,290	397,120	891,280
United States	.....	.....	2,770
Uruguay	3,290	9,130	430
Wearing apparel:			
Austria-Hungary	17,010	4,410	.....
France	13,630	4,590	5,060
Germany	11,740	5,670	.....
Italy	11,430	1,720	1,110
Portugal	920	2,440	1,580
United Kingdom	30,190	12,540	24,310
Other linen manufactures:			
Austria-Hungary	8,560	730	.....
Belgium	5,480	1,150	2,650
France	17,830	43,870	8,420
Germany	23,330	5,060	.....
United Kingdom	77,930	19,660	39,650
United States	770	260	11,430

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Articles and countries.	1913	1914	1916
SILK GOODS.			
Braids and trimmings:			
France	$22,550	$2,330	$3,770
Germany	4,710	2,740	.....
Lace: France	2,780	2,530	5,650
Neckties:			
Austria-Hungary	3,710	1,670	.....
France	5,330	1,320	2,720
Germany	8,440	3,890	.....
Italy	1,710	2,140	780
United Kingdom	7,460	3,860	6,710
United States	590	1,250	2,480
Piece goods:			
Austria-Hungary	2,300	870	.....
France	125,780	49,070	151,640
Germany	40,490	15,000	.....
Italy	27,840	3,400	31,840
Switzerland	33,900	3,510	13,110
United Kingdom	22,440	12,390	34,930
United States	.....	.....	2,250
Uruguay	2,540	420	320
Ribbons:			
France	101,170	34,750	43,570
Germany	40,510	20,220	.....
Italy	11,470	2,060	4,970
Switzerland	36,410	9,300	11,070
United Kingdom	3,980	1,380	3,850
United States	.....	510	5,660
Uruguay	3,690	1,020	.....
Wearing apparel:			
France	29,810	17,700	35,560
Germany	4,580	2,430	.....
Switzerland	.....	.....	2,460
United Kingdom	1,800	1,590	2,300
Other silk manufactures:			
France	112,210	42,100	96,600
Germany	37,600	16,710	.....
Italy	35,070	6,610	8,940
Japan	9,650	1,900	3,240
Switzerland	11,300	3,390	11,770
United Kingdom	20,820	9,690	45,530
United States	2,090	3,220	8,070
Uruguay	3,020	650	.....
VEGETABLE-SILK MANUFACTURES.			
Belgium	1,380	2,350	.....
France	2,760	1,420	2,660
Germany	30,870	7,960	.....
Italy	2,470	1,100	10,180
Switzerland	.....	300	7,040
United Kingdom	83,960	65,670	175,960
United States	200	770	2,660
WOOLEN GOODS.			
Piece goods:			
Argentina	5,060	880	4,360
Austria-Hungary	53,420	13,310	.....
Belgium	50,750	15,970	.....
France	303,390	142,360	117,820
Germany	487,910	163,290	.....
Italy	50,500	12,220	37,560
Spain	.....	.....	4,690
Switzerland	5,570	1,360	16,830
United Kingdom	1,721,740	665,380	894,370
United States	2,040	340	181,120
Uruguay	13,570	10,200	4,990
Wearing apparel:			
France	28,050	10,030	13,430
Germany	33,110	16,250	.....
Italy	5,070	1,080	1,760
United Kingdom	8,200	7,390	12,670
United States	1,510	210	2,270
Other wool manufactures:			
Austria-Hungary	6,320	2,430	.....
Belgium	2,680	220	.....
France	68,980	19,920	15,080
Germany	186,540	73,040	.....
Italy	4,190	2,480	490
United Kingdom	71,430	24,980	35,900
United States	4,280	13,750	52,470
Uruguay	2,200	1,870	550

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The following table shows the total imports of textiles and wearing apparel into Brazil from each of the principal countries of origin in 1913 and 1916, and the gain or loss in the trade, in amount and per cent:

Countries.	1913	1916	Loss (−) or gain (+).	Per cent loss (−) or gain (+).
Argentina	$41,630	$17,530	− $24,100	− 58
Austria	749,820	.....	− 749,820	−100
Belgium	1,093,850	2,820	−1,091,030	−100
France	2,341,550	1,114,930	−1,226,620	− 52
Germany	4,124,630	12,340	−4,112,290	− 99¾
Italy	941,240	435,180	− 506,060	− 54
Netherlands	50,450	12,320	− 38,130	− 76
Portugal	190,710	197,210	+ 6,500	+ 3½
Spain	27,980	72,000	+ 44,020	+157
Switzerland	855,970	675,390	− 180,580	− 21
United Kingdom	12,998,980	10,716,720	−2,282,260	− 18
United States	302,060	1,316,800	+1,014.740	+336
Uruguay	157,600	53,190	− 104,410	− 66
Total	23,876,470	14,626,430	−9,250,040	− 39

As has been seen, the total decrease in textile and wearing apparel imports in 1916 amounted to 39 per cent of the value for 1913. The practical disappearance from the market of Austria, Germany, and Belgium accounts for 58 per cent of the gross loss of $10,315,300. Although Italy's share in the loss amounted to only 5 per cent of the total, it meant a shrinkage in its business of 54 per cent. France also lost over 50 per cent of its business, or 12 per cent of the total decrease. Although England's loss was the largest in the aggregate of any of the European allied or neutral countries, the proportionate loss was the smallest, representing only 18 per cent of its business for 1913. Thus, considering that the total shrinkage was 39 per cent, England may be said to have actually strengthened its comparative position, while all the other European countries, except Portugal, Spain, and Switzerland weakened their comparative positions. The only substantial increase in business was shown by Spain and the United States, whose exports increased by 157 and 336 per cent, respectively, thus furnishing one-half and 9 per cent of the total in 1916, as compared with only one-tenth of 1 per cent and 1¼ per cent in 1913. A further analysis shows that England's principal loss was in cotton piece goods and in woolen piece goods, for both of which articles the production in Brazil has largely increased. The British exports of linen goods remained practically unchanged, while the sales of silk and vegetable silk nearly doubled.

The gain of the United States is accounted for almost entirely by an increase of three-quarters of a million dollars in cotton goods, and of one-quarter of a million dollars in woolen goods. The decrease in total imports of cotton goods into Brazil amounted to $6,500,000 net. England contributed about $1,400,000 and Germany $3,200,000 of the loss; thus the United States succeeded in replacing only a little more than half of the goods that England was unable to supply, although the American products are similar to the English and in no way filled the gap left by the cessation of imports from Germany.

The United States enjoyed practically none of the trade in woolen goods before the war, but the increase represents only about 12 per

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cent of the amount of woolen goods that Europe failed to supply. Moreover, given the rapid development of the silk industry in the United States, the gain of $15,800 in silk goods is not sufficient to cause much self-congratulation, considering that there was a shortage of nearly $60,000 from France, which is the largest supplier of silk goods for Brazil. England appears to have been more alive to the situation, as its sales showed a gain of $37,000.

The official statistics are not sufficiently detailed as to articles in the different classes to permit a close analysis, but it would appear that large as the increase of the trade of the United States has been, whenever considered on a percentage basis, it might have been much larger in volume had American manufacturers studied the Brazilian market more closely with a view to replacing goods that could not be obtained from Europe. The further study of the styles of wearing apparel used in Brazil may, it is hoped, furnish some useful clues as to the lines along which efforts should be directed.

FACTORS AFFECTING TRADE IN AMERICAN WEARING APPAREL.

As has been seen from the study of the population of Brazil, the trade in wearing apparel, such as can be supplied by American and European exporters (that is to say, the better grades and more fashionable styles, the entry of which is not prevented by prohibitive duties), is practically confined to the larger coast cities. Most of the people in the interior, not much subject to social conventions, supply their simple necessities in the matter of clothing from the products of domestic industry. The expansion of the market must therefore accompany the economic development of the country, and especially the extension of means of communication, which will bring the people of the interior more in contact with the life of the cities and thus tend to modify their social habits. This process is likely to be somewhat slow. The manufacturer, therefore, who is looking for results in Brazil in the comparatively near future must confine his study for the present to the large cities.

The extension of the American manufacturer's market in Brazil depends on the extension of what may be called city conditions of life. Here he encounters two classes of competition: First, that of European manufacturers, and, second, that of Brazilian manufacturers. In the first class of competition the prize will go to the leaders in fashion and style, always provided due consideration is given to the exigencies of the Brazilian climate. In the past France and England have imposed their fashions on the Brazilian public, and to a certain extent upon the American public. Of late years, however, the tendency has become marked for the United States to create its own fashion, and the productions of American ingenuity and taste should appeal to the Latin-American mind. At present everything points to a closer rapprochement between the United States and Brazil, which should make the Brazilian public favorably disposed to American creations. If they are properly presented and brought to the attention of the Brazilian people, no better occasion could be found to establish a position in the market that would tend to be of permanent and of increasing importance.

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In the second class, the competition is with articles manufactured in Brazil from either imported or domestic materials and in one of two ways—namely, factory production and individual manufacture. The amount of individual manufacture forms a disproportionately large percentage of the total product and individual manufacture is, as a rule, much higher in cost than factory production. There would seem, therefore, to be a field for American manufacturers who study the tastes of the market to supply a portion of the trade that is now served by the individually made article. The improved American manufacturing methods and greater economy in cost resulting from large-scale production would tend to offset the high protection furnished by the customs tariff. Against the Brazilian factory products, which are confined mostly to low-grade articles, it is extremely difficult for foreign goods to compete.

Both the individually made articles and the factory products are marketed largely with department stores in the big cities. It will further be found that the difference in price between the cost and the retail selling price is very great in both the domestic and the imported article. It is a matter worthy of serious study on the part of American manufacturers whether the establishment of department stores in the principal cities of Brazil, making a specialty of American goods adapted to the Brazilian climate and tastes and selling at prices that give a reasonable margin of profit would not prove a good investment as well as largely increase the popularity and sale of American goods.

MEN'S WEAR.

In treating of the separate articles of wearing apparel in use in Brazil, a sharp distinction must be drawn between those worn by the people of the interior and those worn by the people of the large cities. This applies to both men's and women's apparel.

A casual tourist visiting Rio de Janeiro or any other large city of Brazil, even in the northern part of the country, would find it difficult to believe that he was in a tropical country, as far as the garments in use are concerned. In fact, every Brazilian feels himself obliged to sacrifice his comfort to the European styles of clothes and to follow the fashions of the large cities, such as London and Paris. In this respect the Brazilian of good social position is inclined to give preference to the English styles and his wife will follow the mode of Paris.

There is no essential difference between the appearance of the well-dressed Brazilian and that of the man of equal social position in London, Paris, or any of the large American cities. The fabrics worn in Brazil, however, are, as a rule, much lighter in weight and finer in texture. Attention must, therefore, be given to the quality of materials employed for men's outer wearing apparel.

The domestic woolen-goods industry has already reached considerable development. Nevertheless, Brazil is still dependent principally upon England, France, Belgium, and Germany for the finer textiles. The better grades of woolens, which serve for women's tailor-made gowns and men's suits, come principally from France

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and England, while Germany and Italy have supplied the coarser goods.

An idea of the general classes of goods employed for men's suits may be obtained from the following table showing the classes of serges and cheviots used, their weight per square yard, and their prices per yard. These materials were largely imported and freely sold before the war. The prices given prevailed immediately prior to the war free on board in a European port. As a rule, the payment was covered by a draft on the Brazilian importer at 90 days sight for the value of the merchandise plus the shipping expenses. Conditions are too abnormal and prices subject to too violent fluctuations to render the current quotations of any value for purposes of comparison.

Serges and cheviots.	Ounces per square yard.	Cents per yard.	Serges and cheviots.	Ounces per square yard.	Cents per yard.
Wool and cotton:			Pure wool—Continued.		
40 per cent cotton	7.37	39.7		5.90	29.1
	7.08	39.7		5.90	33.5
	6.19	28.2		5.90	37.1
50 per cent cotton	7.37	39.7		6.34	31.8 to 40.6
55 per cent cotton	7.37	39.7		6.78	45.0
10 per cent cotton (dyed in the piece)	5.31	40.6		7.67	50.3
10 per cent cotton	5.31	41.5	Solid color	8.40	62.7
6 per cent cotton	6.78	46.8		4.71	52.9
Pure wool:				7.08	38.0 to 62.7
				8.85	81.2
	5.90	40.6		9.28	63.5
	6.19	45.0		9.14	74.1
	6.19	54.7		9.44	69.7
Fancy	6.78	61.8			
	7.22	68.0			
	7.37	58.2			
	7.37	83.8			

The linings employed in making up these cloths were imported almost exclusively from Belgium.

SUITS.

The two-piece suit is not as a rule worn by city dwellers, who compose the clerical, small-employee, and professional classes and people in easy circumstances or with some pretentions to social position. On the other hand, it is used almost exclusively by the laborers, farmers, etc. In fact, for the great mass of the day laborers in the city and of the people in the interior of the country, trousers and coat of coarse cotton cloth constitute the sole wearing apparel owned, and frequently a rough cotton shirt takes the place of the coat. In these circumstances, the ordinary man and his family, who use only light cotton clothes manufactured in the country, can clothe themselves at very small expense, in spite of the high cost of living in Brazil.

These two-piece cotton suits are manufactured in the country on a fairly large scale. The coat is of the sack variety, with two side pockets and with three or four common bone or composition buttons. The trousers are usually worn without suspenders but frequently with a common strap belt. The following table shows the

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factory prices of workmen's two-piece suits and of separate trousers and coats of various materials:

Articles.	Prices.	Articles.	Prices.
Suits (2 pieces):		Trousers:	
Printed drill	$0.96–$1.08	Cottonade—	
Cotton diagonal	1.32– 1.63	Diagonal	$0.72
Fancy drill	1.32– 1.92	Fancy	1.06
Casinete	1.56– 2.04	Striped	0.48– .60
Coats, cottonade:		Khaki—	
Diagonal	1.06	Domestic	.72– 1.08
Fancy	1.16	English	2.02
Striped	.74		

This class of production is heavily protected by the customs tariff. According to the schedules now in force, cotton wearing apparel not otherwise specified pays an import duty of double the rate on the material plus 10 per cent. The rate on drills and casinetes for men's clothing is 2 milreis (about 50 cents); hence the duty on ready-made clothing of those materials would be 4$400 per kilo, which, taking into consideration the percentage payable in gold, is equivalent to 82 cents per pound. In view of this high duty American manufacturers can not expect to find any market in Brazil for ready-made clothing of this description.

The three-piece suit, consisting of coat, vest, and trousers, is generally worn by the middle classes in the cities all the year round and can be obtained ready-made at very reasonable prices. Such suits of light woolen materials are sold by the wholesale manufacturing establishments at prices ranging about 32 milreis ($7.68), 35 milreis ($8.40), and 38 milreis ($9.12), and are offered by the retail stores at 45 to 55 milreis ($10.80 to $13.20). The department stores also display three-piece suits at about 80 to 95 milreis ($19.20 to $22.80), which are, as a rule, made especially for them by small tailors.

Besides the factories in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, which supply the department stores and retailers, there are several small establishments directed by Turks, Syrians, and Armenians, which make up cheap ready-to-wear clothing for men of the poorer classes. These establishments furnish goods to the traveling peddlers of the same nationality, who not only canvass the cities but also scour the interior of the country, even visiting the farms and plantations. Often these goods are sold on the installment plan, with weekly or monthly payments. These houses do not use machines, and their production is not very large.

The working classes in general do not employ tailors, who are, however, numerous. Many of them work for the stores, which furnish them with the necessary material. Most of them, however, do custom work to measure, supplying the materials and fittings, which they carry in stock. Their customers are the middle and upper classes. Their prices for three-piece suits for daily wear vary from 75 to 120 milreis ($18 to $28.80), in which price are included the labor, materials, and trimmings. There also exist many tailors to whom the clients send the materials and trimmings to be made up, paying only for the work, the cost of which varies according to the tailor from 35 to 55 milreis ($8.40 to $13.20). Men who follow the fashions employ tailors almost exclusively and pay for three-piece suits, generally of fine imported materials, 120 to 250 milreis ($28.80

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to $60). During the summer months, from November to April, three-piece suits of white linen drill are much worn, costing 80 to 120 milreis ($19.20 to $28.80) per suit for the better qualities. Cheaper ready-made suits can be obtained. Lighter summer suits of materials similar to "Palm Beach" cloth are not much in use, although they are worn to some extent by the foreign element.

OVERCOATS AND TOPCOATS—SWEATERS—MUFFLERS.

The demand for overcoats and topcoats in Brazil is limited. In the northern part of the country the climatic conditions are such that even at night on occasions when evening dress might be worn no outer coat is necessary or, in fact, bearable. In the cities of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, as well as the cities of the south of Brazil, during the winter months a light topcoat is necessary to be worn with evening dress. This demand, which is not large, is filled by the custom tailors, the prices being in proportion to those charged for suits of the corresponding quality. In the cities named, and also in the interior of the country and the cities of higher altitude, such as Petropolis, Theresopolis, Novo Friburgo, and Bello Horizonte, there are a few days in the year when an overcoat is really necessary, the thermometer sometimes falling as low as freezing point. As these days always occur in the rainy season the raincoat most frequently takes the place of the overcoat. Ready-made overcoats of medium weight and fair quality can be obtained at the department stores at 70 to 120 milreis ($16.80 to $28.80). As a rule, however, the stocks carried are very small and are replenished as occasion demands by orders placed with the small local tailors. There is no wholesale business in this line. Raincoats are universally used throughout Brazil and are generally imported by the clothing establishments direct from England and France. On account of the heat the fabrics are somewhat lighter in weight than those commonly worn in the United States. Coats with attached hood to cover the hat are very popular, although the usual coat with collar is also much used.

Sweaters and sweater coats find practically no market in Brazil. The only demand comes from a few football clubs and rowing associations in the larger cities and is not large enough to warrant the carrying of stocks by the clothing establishments.

Owing to the climate of Brazil, there is practically no demand for mufflers. Only in the cities of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo are they used at all, and then only in the rainy season, by a limited number of men, in connection with evening dress. During the greater part of the year it is possible to go out in evening dress with a muffler or even a topcoat. The better class of furnishing stores carry a very small stock to satisfy the occasional demand. The mufflers commonly sold are of silk or fine wool in white or pearl gray.

LIVERIES AND UNIFORMS—OVERALLS.

There is scarcely any market in Brazil for liveries and uniforms. The only people who wear liveries are to be found in the few large cities, principally Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, and are mostly chauffeurs, whose uniforms are bought ready-made or are made to

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measure. They are made of green, navy-blue, brown, or nickel-gray woolen cloth, or of white or cream-colored cotton drill. The following are some of the current prices for different kinds of uniforms made to measure: English melton, $21.60; tan or white khaki drill, $3.60 to $4.80; white linen, $6 to $9.60.

The uniforms for the police and postal employees are made in the country and are generally sold on the basis of monthly payments. A local house in Rio de Janeiro manufactures most of the uniforms for the sailors of the Navy, the civil police, postmen, and firemen. Brazil imports none of these articles. The uniforms of the employees of street-car lines are also made locally under special contracts with the street-car companies, the prices running about $16.80 per uniform, for which the employee pays at the rate of $2.40 per month.

Brazilian workmen are not accustomed to use overalls or other outer garments to protect their clothing. Engineers' working costume generally consists of trousers and jacket of blue cottonade of domestic manufacture, which they buy ready-made at $1.20 to $1.44. The costume for other classes of workmen is the same as their everyday wear.

COLLARS AND CUFFS.

Collars and cuffs form one of the principal branches of the wearing-apparel industry in Brazil. Aside from the fact that they are worn by the great mass of the inhabitants of the large cities and the cities of the interior, it must also be taken into consideration that in a hot climate, inducing abundant perspiration, these articles soil so rapidly that they must be renewed daily by all classes of wearers. Moreover, owing to the somewhat primitive laundry methods existing in most parts of the country and the need of frequent washing, they are used up in a comparatively short space of time.

Brazil has many shirt factories, which also manufacture collars, principally of cotton. The finer articles of linen are generally imported from France and England. The duties on cotton collars and linen collars are the same, namely, 3$600 per dozen (equivalent to $1.48 per dozen, taking into consideration the percentage payable on a gold basis). Evidently, therefore, there is no advantage in importing the low-priced cotton collar, which can be manufactured in the country, and only the linen article not made in the country can support this high tariff.

Straight collars and the double folded-over collars are the styles most in demand. The high straight collars, with turned-over points, are also well regarded, especially for evening wear. In general, the English styles are closely followed. With colored shirts, of the negligee variety, the soft detachable collars, assorted to match the shirt, are much worn. Starched colored collars to match shirts with starched bosoms are also worn. Nevertheless, the white starched collar is most popular.

Celluloid collars are not used to any extent in Brazil. Some trade exists in this line with the Turkish and Syrian houses of São Paulo, which supply the peddlers that visit the interior of the State.

American collars, being generally of cotton with linen facings, scarcely figure in the imports, as the low first cost is offset by the high duties.

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The sizes of collars and shirts are expressed in centimeters, the sizes varying by half-centimeters. The measurements are taken from the center of buttonhole to the center of buttonhole. Thus a No. 40 collar would be equivalent to 15¾ inches, and the next size, No. 40½, would be equivalent to practically 16 inches. Thus it may be said that for all practical purposes the sizes vary by quarter inches. A No. 40 shirt takes a No. 40 collar. The heights of the collars also are expressed in centimeters, the highest being 6 or 7 centimeters (2.36 or 2.76 inches) in front and 5½ centimeters (2.17 inches) in the back.

The following prices, obtained from one of the principal houses of Rio, give an idea of the cost per dozen, f. o. b. a French port, of the collars imported on the largest scale: Pure linen, 18 francs ($3.47); pure linen, 14 francs ($2.70); triple linen, 11 francs ($2.12); fine cotton, 9 francs ($1.74); fine cotton, 7.50 francs ($1.45). The following are the wholesale prices of different kinds of collars per dozen at one of the principal importing houses of Rio de Janeiro: Plain cotton, 7$200 ($1.73); double cotton, 8$200 ($1.97); plain linen, English, 14$500 ($3.48); double linen, English, 15$000 ($3.60); plain linen, domestic, 11$500 ($2.76); double linen, domestic, 12$000 ($2.88); soft collars, 6$500 ($1.56) to 12$000 ($2.88). It is difficult to determine whether some of the items quoted are of domestic production or are imported, as domestic articles frequently bear the marks of foreign goods and are so offered. To the prices quoted must be added the consumption stamp tax, which applies to both domestic and imported articles. A cash discount of 5 per cent is allowed.

For purposes of comparison there follow the factory prices per dozen of one of the principal manufacturers of cotton collars in Rio de Janeiro: Plain cotton collar, $1.44; double cotton collar, $1.68. Retail prices of collars are as follows: Extra linen, 3 for $1.08; soft, double linen, 3 for $0.84; soft, cotton, 3 for $0.48.

In regard to cuffs, the situation is similar to that regarding collars. The customs duties are the same for the linen article as for the cotton, namely, 5 milreis per dozen pairs (equivalent to $2.05, taking into consideration the percentage payable on a gold basis). Imports are limited to the linen goods, it being practically impossible for the imported cotton cuffs to compete with the domestic articles. Dimensions are also given in centimeters and represent the length of the cuff. The styles follow closely those in current use in France and England. The same factories that manufacture collars also make cuffs, mostly of cotton. Celluloid cuffs are also used to a considerable extent, being generally of fancy designs to agree with the shade of the shirt. A fair demand also exists in the cities for colored celluloid cuff protectors.

The following are the prevailing prices per dozen pairs for different kinds of imported and domestic cuffs: F. o. b. French port, 24 francs ($4.63) for pure linen 7-fold, 18 francs ($3.47) for 5-fold, and 16 francs ($3.09) for 3-fold; domestic, $2.88 to $3.12 for cotton and $4.32 for linen; retail prices, $3.12 to $3.60 for cotton and $3.60 to $7.20 for linen. The Brazilian collar and cuff factories also make false bosoms for shirts, which are in good demand. They are usually of fine cotton and are sold at retail at $0.72 to $1.20 each.

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SHIRTS.

Among the articles of wearing apparel that from a commercial point of view must be considered of the greatest importance in Brazil are shirts. In a climate such as that of Brazil, in which everyone perspires freely during all seasons of the year, with its burning sun deteriorating the textiles exposed to it during washing and drying, and with the laundresses taking little care of the pieces intrusted to them and often employing cheap soap with an excess of potash, linen has a very short life. Moreover, shirts are practically the only article of clothing worn by all the 25,000,000 inhabitants of Brazil. Although the domestic shirt industry is already well developed, the country is still dependent on imports for the finer articles and those of medium quality. In Rio de Janeiro are 72 shirt houses of first and second importance which do a wholesale and importing business. Many of them also sell at retail. Among these houses are about a dozen with well-equipped factories, producing on a large scale. Some of them make only cheap articles and others medium-priced articles. Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo furnish shirts to practically all the interior of the country, and four-fifths of the population buy only shirts of domestic manufacture.

The shirts generally used in Brazil differ somewhat in length and width from those worn in the United States and Europe. The Brazilian shirt is shorter and narrower. That worn by the workmen or common people of the interior is at least one-quarter shorter than those commonly used in Europe. For the middle classes the difference is not so great. The qualities are the same as in Europe and the United States, although linen shirts are rather rare. The materials commonly employed in the domestic factories are cotton zephyrs and bleached white shirtings. Nevertheless, there are to be found on sale in Brazil, principally in the large cities, shirts of all qualities purchased from all sources. At present most of the goods imported come from Portugal, England, and North America.

Portuguese shirts are in good demand. They are well finished and the textile used is often percale or zephyr of fair quality. The colors are distinct and well-fixed. Linen is generally used only for the cuffs and bosom. The advantage of the Portuguese article over the similar French, Belgian, or English article is that it is somewhat cheaper, and its popularity is due to the fact that the manufacturers have carefully studied the tastes of the market and endeavored to comply with them. As a rule, the manufacturing houses of Europe, except in Germany and Portugal, do not care to adapt their finished products to the preferences of the foreign purchaser. This is a particularly erroneous policy in the case of Brazil, for in a sunny country, with the atmosphere saturated with humidity, the effect of the light is intensified and the designs and colors change in value and relative effect. For this reason colors that in Europe or in the United States might create a shocking contrast may in tropical latitudes fade and blend to make a harmonious effect. It is therefore necessary that the supplier should comply with the requirements of the client as regards effects of color. This point has been understood by the Portuguese and the Germans, who have made up their shirts as the Brazilians require them. They have also understood that the shirts used in

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Brazil, as a rule, require less cloth than those for other countries and can consequently be manufactured cheaper. A second reason for the great popularity of the Portuguese shirts is doubtless the size of the Portuguese colony in Brazil, who will not admit that anything is superior in quality to the products of their own country.

The fine shirts are imported principally from France, England, Belgium, and Italy. They are generally made of very fine percale, linen, or cotton shirting of the first quality. For such shirts soft textiles, more agreeable for use, are preferred to the heavier, firmer cloths, in spite of the fact that they wrinkle more easily. Very often these fine shirts are handmade. The current styles in zephyr, muslins, etc., are similar to those used in European countries or the United States. Linen is used very little in the articles manufactured in Brazil. It is, in fact, rarely employed, even for the cuffs and bosoms, the cuffs being generally of fine cotton and the bosoms of piqué, for daily wear in the cities.

At present shirts with attached collars are not in vogue, except a very coarse quality, which may be used by the laborers and also by the inhabitants of the interior of the country. The use of the shirt with an attached collar, even by these classes, is becoming very rare. The detached cuff is generally used with the dress shirt or fine white shirts. Starched attached cuffs are often used with negligee shirts, but generally the fancy negligee shirts have only soft cuffs or double-folded cuffs. The straight form and the folded-back form are equally popular. For full-dress shirts the popular styles are the same as the American types, the coat shirt being very popular on account of its practicability. In general, for dress wear two styles of shirt are worn—with full dress the shirt with starched bosom, with one or two buttonholes, is usually adopted, while the soft shirt, with wide pleats and two pearl buttons, is worn with the tuxedo. Silk bosoms are rarely used. The shirt with soft bosom is in greater general use than that with the starched bosom on account of its greater comfort in a hot climate like that of Brazil. Moreover, the laundry charges on this kind of shirt are lower, as a rule, than those on the starched shirt.

Laundry work is not well done from an American point of view, either by the steam laundries or by the local washerwomen, and the linen is destroyed in a very short time. There are few steam laundries in Brazil. Rio de Janeiro has three or four that are fairly well equipped and can deliver the finished laundry within 24 hours. Nearly all, however, employ chemical products of inferior quality for bleaching, which shortens the life of the clothing. The prevailing prices charged for laundry work are the following: Shirt with starched bosom, 12 cents at steam laundries and 9.6 cents by local washerwomen; shirt with soft bosom, 9.6 cents at steam laundries and 7.2 cents by local washerwomen; collars, 4.8 cents each and cuffs, 4.8 cents per pair both at steam laundries and by washerwomen.

At least three-eighths of the population prefer colored shirts. The designs most in demand are of striped textiles, with well-defined and bright colors on a white ground. White shirts, however, are more in demand among the better classes.

The French method of indicating sizes in centimeters has been adopted in Brazil, and the number of the shirt always indicates the circumference of the neck. For example, No. 35 indicates that the

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neck size is 35 centimeters. The number has no reference whatever to the length and the width.

Shirts are generally classified as follows: For children 5 to 9 years old; for children 10 to 12 years old; for children 13 to 14 years old; for children 14 to 16 years old; men's sizes, 29 to 42. As a rule, shirts made for the working class are not classified by numbers, nearly all bearing the same number. These workmen's shirts are very roughly made and are absolutely protected from foreign competition, as the customs duties are 22 milreis, paper ($5.28), to 26 milreis ($6.24) per dozen. Only fine shirts for the wealthier classes can be imported. If any linen is employed in the manufacture of the article the duties amount to 30 milreis per dozen (equivalent to $12.31, taking into consideration the percentage payable in gold), while pure linen shirts would pay 52 milreis (equivalent to $21.34).

The prices of domestic cotton shirts have not been affected by the general rise in the cost of living in Brazil. The laboring man can clothe himself at relatively little expense. The factories turn out colored shirts, such as he is accustomed to wear, at 29, 38, 48, and 53 cents each. These are sold at retail in the shops of the large cities at 38 cents for plain zephyr, 43 to 48 cents for striped cotton, and 53 to 65 cents for striped zephyr. The textiles are all coarse fabrics, made in the native cotton mills.

The establishments that manufacture the medium-priced article employ for the body of the shirt cotton textiles of fair quality, of either domestic or foreign production. The bosoms are made of English or Portuguese fabrics, made especially for this purpose and all ready to be put in place. The wholesale prices of such shirts, per dozen, are as follows:

No.		
1.	White cotton, with white muslin bosom, without collar or cuffs	$10.08
2.	Beige batiste, with cordonette bosom, with collar	10.56
3.	White cotton, with striped bosom	11.04
4.	White cotton, with white piqué bosom	12.48
5.	Striped zephyr	13.44
6.	Fine white cotton, with white muslin bosom	17.28
7.	Striped zephyr	11.52
8.	Striped zephyr, with white ground	13.44
9.	Striped beige zephyr	16.80
10.	Batiste, with beige muslin bosom	12.00
11.	Beige foulard, with striped bosom	16.80
12.	Beige foulard, with striped bosom	17.28

At retail No. 1 is sold at $1.18 each, No. 6 at $1.92, and No. 10 at $1.68. Some factories produce shirts at $9.12 to $28.80 per dozen. The higher-priced article has wide linen cuffs, as well as linen bosom. Wholesale houses that import foreign shirts also sell those of domestic manufacture, sometimes representing them to be foreign.

The prevailing prices for fine cotton shirts with starched linen bosoms, but without collars and cuffs, are $20.16 to $23.04 per dozen. Soft shirts of similar quality with fancy pleated bosoms cost $14.40 to $25.44 per dozen. Finer white shirts with linen bosoms, without collar or cuffs, are imported to some extent up to $36 per dozen; solid-color zephyr shirts, with soft separate collar and with fold-back cuffs, can be obtained around $14.40 per dozen, and fancy zephyr shirts at $18.72 to $23.16.

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Retail houses in the larger cities offer shirts of domestic production at $0.72 to $3.36 each. The styles and qualities at the different prices are as follows:

White percale, soft bosom, without collar or cuffs, $0.72 to $0.96.
White percale, embroidered, for weddings, without collar or cuffs, $2.16.
White full-dress, linen bosom, $2.40.
White linen, full-dress, $3.36.
White cotton, starched bosom, with cuffs, $1.44.
White, "Panama" textile, $1.20.

The imported shirts and the prices at which they are retailed are as follows:

Pure wool, solid-color, with collar and cuffs, $2.40.
French wool and silk, $3.84.
Portuguese, "Ramiro Leão," with collar and cuffs, $1.80.
French white muslin, with wide cuffs, soft bosom, $2.40.
English zephyr, modern colored designs, without collar or cuffs, $0.96 to $1.20.
American styles, coat shirts, detached cuffs, solid colors or stripes, $1.20 to $2.88.
White tricot, fil d'Ecosse, $1.44.
Portuguese zephyr, solid colors or stripes, for 3 shirts, $7.80.
American cotton, soft collar, stripes with white ground, for 3 shirts, $7.80.
American cotton, soft collar, stripes with white ground, each, $1.20.
American cotton, $1.44.
French piqué (French), for 3 shirts, $5.04.
French "Bertolet," cotton and linen, for 3 shirts, $7.20.
French "Bertolet," linen, for 3 shirts, $8.40.
French net or open work, for 3 shirts, $4.56.
French imitation linen, soft pleated bosom, for 3 shirts, $6.
Belgian Lyon, zephyr, per dozen, $10.80 to $48.
French linen, per dozen, $36 to $84.

England and Belgium were large exporters of textiles for the manufacture of shirts. The qualities most in demand were zephyrs, which are sold at 1$750 to 1$800 per meter (38.4 to 39.48 cents per yard); printed percales at about 1$300 per meter (28.5 cents per yard); "toile Vichy" at 1$250 per meter (27.43 cents per yard); and white shirtings at 1$700 to 1$800 per meter (37.29 to 39.48 cents per yard).

The only State that has factories for woolen shirts is São Paulo, in which there are two establishments producing about 8,900 dozens per year.

NECKTIES—UNDERWEAR.

The imports of neckties into Brazil amounted to about $32,000 prior to the war and at present are averaging about $15,000 per annum. France and Germany were the principal sources of supply for the cotton articles, while France, Germany, Austria, the United Kingdom, and Italy supplied the silk goods. Since the outbreak of the war Germany and Austria have been eliminated, and the United States has entered the market and obtained a fair share of the comparatively small trade. There is no reason why neckties already made up should not be imported, as the customs tariff does not protect domestic industry in this line, being precisely the same (56 milreis per kilo, equivalent to $10.44 per pound, taking into consideration the gold quota) on neckties and on the grades of silk used in the manufacture of neckties. Nevertheless, many of the ties offered for sale as imported goods are really manufactured in the country by small establishments.

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The styles in use do not differ from those of the United States and England. Prices are not much higher than those for corresponding qualities in the United States, if the customs duties are taken into consideration.

The use of the knitted shirt is general in Brazil, as the only shirt worn by the working classes and as an undergarment by the more well-to-do people. Most of the laborers, such as stevedores, gardeners, truckmen, and porters, wear only the knitted shirt of domestic make. The better classes use for underwear shirts of "crêpe de santé," plain balbriggan, and to some extent knitted shirts of mercerized cotton. Numerous Brazilian factories produce these articles. In Rio de Janeiro there exist two or three that work only in cotton. The most important of the Rio factories (Santa Margarida) also manufactures a limited quantity of knitted silk shirts.

The knit undershirts worn in Brazil may be divided into three classes: Of foreign origin, for the well to do; of domestic make, for the middle class; and of domestic make, for the laboring class. In the first class the article most in demand is very light, generally of French origin and known as "crêpe de santé," chemise du normal (plain balbriggan), and knitted lisle thread. These grades are sold at retail at the following prices: Crêpe de santé, colored stripes, 3 for $5.28; lisle thread, 3 for $6; plain balbriggan, 3 for $3.60; plain jersey, 3 for $4.80 to $5.40. Portugal also exports considerable quantities of an article similar to the "crêpe de santé," which is sold under the name of shirts of "espuma" (foam) at the price of $5.40 for three shirts.

The article worn by the middle class is generally of domestic make. They are all practically of the same style, made in one piece, with short sleeves, light or dark cream in color, and buttoning in front. The only trimming consists of a band of silk or imitation silk 3½ centimeters (about 1.38 inches) wide, as facing for the opening in front. The material is usually mercerized cotton yarn. The retail prices vary from $0.31 to $0.91 each. There is also a grade which enjoys a good demand, of knitted open mesh, selling from $1.32 to $1.56 per shirt.

The popular article, which enjoys the largest market, is very coarse and is worn by the laborers not as an undershirt but as the only shirt in daily use. These grades are sold at wholesale for $2.04 to $2.16 per dozen, and are resold at retail for about $0.31 each.

HOSIERY.

The hosiery industry has attained considerable development in Brazil, the increase in the number of factories being particularly marked in the last few years. The domestic production is estimated at $1,600,000 per annum. Most of these factories manufacture only cotton stockings, although the Santa Margarida produces also a limited quantity of silk. There is also a factory in São Paulo equipped with American machinery and managed by an American, which makes a specialty of silk stockings for both men and women. Its output is about 450 dozen pairs per month. The silk thread is imported from the United States.

Competition with the lower-grade articles manufactured in Brazil is practically impossible on account of the strong protection afforded

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by the high customs duties. As an example, it may be stated that the tariff on a dozen pairs of men's cotton socks, up to 20 centimeters (7.87 inches) in length, is 3$200, which taking into consideration the percentage payable on a gold basis, is equivalent to 5$470 or $1.31. On socks over 20 centimeters in length the tariff is 6 milreis, or $2.46, per dozen pairs. If the stockings or socks are woven without seams, there is a surtax of 20 per cent on the regular duties. These high duties prohibit all competition with Brazilian goods, which generally sell at $1.92 to $5.28 per dozen. The majority of the factories do not spin the yarn that they use but import it already prepared from Europe and the United States. The yarn is usually delivered to the factories on cones of 500 to 600 grams. The principal European sources of supply are England and Italy.

The large foreign exporting houses have their own representatives in Rio de Janeiro and other large cities, which are generally importing houses. The English merchants have been accustomed to sell to the importers with draft at 90 or 120 days sight; the Italian houses also follow the same custom. Before the war the German exporters frequently opened current accounts with their clients. The Brazilian factories, however, give somewhat shorter terms, in many cases selling against cash, sometimes at 30 days after delivery of the merchandise and at 90 days sight to the wholesale establishments.

The goods are generally packed, as in Europe, in cardboard boxes containing one-half dozen pairs. The cheaper articles, however, intended for the laboring classes, are sold in bundles of one-half dozen.

Stockings and socks are numbered or measured in inches, as in the United States and England: For men, 9, 9½, 10, 10½, and 11; for women, 8, 8½, 9, and 9½; for children (special numbers), 1 to 8.

Although the considerable development of the national industry, due to the high protective duties, has rendered competition practically impossible in the lower-priced articles, a good market is to be found in Brazil for the medium and better grades of hosiery and for silk goods. The only country that, prior to the war, attempted to compete with the cheap domestic production was Germany, which, to gain the market, submitted to the purchasers a wide range of types at very low prices. Other countries, such as Italy, England, and France, sold novelties, high-class, or medium-quality goods, the minimum cost of which was $4.80 per dozen. At present American hosiery is enjoying a good demand in the Brazilian market, especially stockings for use in sports, such as football and rowing.

Seamless stockings and socks are most in demand. The majority of the native factories use only tubular knitting machines, especially for the medium-priced article. A few factories employ rectilinear machines, but most of them belong to Germans and are not in operation at present on account of the lack of needles. French hosiery of the seamless style is just beginning to enter the market.

The hosiery trade in Brazil is augmenting from day to day, not only on account of the increase in the population but also because many of the inhabitants of the interior who formerly went barefoot are, with the development of the country, adopting the use of footwear.

The laboring classes of the interior demand stockings and socks of vivid colors; they wear plain black or white very little. With those

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using high-class or medium-priced goods, the shades vary according to the prevailing fashion of the day, as in Europe and the United States. Women almost always wear stockings to match the costume. Plain black and white and tan always enjoy the greatest demand. Fancy articles, such as openwork stockings, striped or embroidered, are also in good demand, especially in lisle thread and silk.

The use of woolen stockings is not at all general in Brazil, although there is a fair amount of manufacture in the country, especially for sporting purposes. This quality of stocking can stand the customs duties, which are slightly lower than those on cotton or lisle-thread hosiery. Germany was formerly the chief source of supply for the imported article.

There has been little or no complaint as to the fixity of the colors of American stockings, imports of which have greatly increased during the last three years. The same can not be said, however, regarding their durability. The adverse criticism is directed principally against the silk stockings. Several of the principal importing houses claim that the weave is too elastic and the stockings show a tendency to stretch, and that the threads have not sufficient tensile strength, breaking very easily. The impression is given that the silk has been treated chemically in such a way as to render it brittle.

It is impossible to give exact data as to the annual consumption of different classes of hosiery in Brazil, since no detailed statistics exist as to either the domestic production or the quantities imported from abroad. It is worthy of note, however, that the exports of knitted cotton goods from the United States to Brazil increased from $11,000 in 1913 to $161,000 in 1916. It is safe to assume that the greater part of this total was composed of hosiery. The latest figures for Brazilian production are those of 1911, which give the annual domestic production of woolen and silk stockings as 2,897,000 milreis ($927,000 at 32 cents to the milreis).

Before the war, when cotton yarn was selling at about 32 cents per pound, coarse socks for workmen were sold by the factories at about 83.2 cents per dozen. At present, with yarn at 4$800 per kilo (52.3 cents per pound, at 24 cents to the milreis), the same socks are sold at 4$500 ($1.08) per dozen. These prices are without discount and with payment in 30 days. Lisle-thread socks are sold by the factories at prices ranging from $1.92 to $5.28 per dozen, in all colors; silk socks, from $7.68 to $10.80 per dozen.

The retail prices per dozen for domestic and imported hosiery are as follows:

DOMESTIC.

Socks, cotton:
- Black, $4.32 to $7.20.
- Colored, $3.84 to $4.80.
- Cream, $2.88.

Short socks:
- For young people, $2.88 to $4.32.
- For young girls, $3.36.
- Striped, sizes 7 to 9, $3.84.

Women's stockings, cotton:
- Black, $4.32 to $6.24.
- Colored, $4.32 to $8.64.
- Rose and blue, $7.20 to $8.16.
- Cream, $5.76.

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Children's socks:
Good quality, fancy, $5.76 to $6.72.
Medium quality, $3.60.
Cotton, fancy, rose, blue, and white, $4.32 to $7.20.
Up to 2 years, all colors, $1.80 to $3.74.

FRENCH.

Women's stockings, cotton:
White, $8.16 to $12.96.
Striped, $7.20.
Cream, $8.64.
Young girls', cotton:
White and black, $10.08.
Colored, $5.76 to $8.64.
Men's socks, cotton:
Black, $8.64 to $10.08.
Colored, $5.76 to $8.64.
Cream, $7.20.
Women's stockings, lisle-thread:
Black, $10.80 to $28.80.
White, $14.40.
Colored, $17.28 to $20.16.
Young girls', lisle-thread, colored, $8.64 to $12.96.
Children's, lisle-thread, colored, $5.76 to $8.64.
Men's socks, lisle-thread:
Black, $12.96.
Colored, $10.08 to $17.28.
Men's socks, wool:
Black, $8.64 to $12.96.
Tan, $8.64.
Women's stockings, wool, colored, $10.08 to $11.52.

AMERICAN.

Women's stockings, cotton:
Black, $10.08 to $11.52.
Openwork, $11.52.
Young girls', cotton, black and white, $5.76 to $7.20.
Children's stockings, cotton:
White, $4.32 to $5.76 and $7.20.
Tan, $5.76 to $7.20.
Men's socks, lisle-thread, colored, $8.64.

SUSPENDERS, GARTERS, AND BELTS.

Suspenders in Brazil are almost entirely in American hands. There is some local manufacturing, but it is on a very small scale, only an insignificant amount of webbing being made in the country. All the buckles, straps, and other fittings are imported from the United States, as well as the greater part of the webbing used. The factories, therefore, are no more than assembling plants for the imported materials. The domestic article is generally poorly finished and is placed on the market at very low prices, with which it is difficult for imported goods to compete. It is sold principally for children's use and to the small retail houses that supply the poorer classes. The styles made in the country imitate the plain elastic web or nonelastic web with elastic tips. Formerly the webbing, as well as the made-up article, was imported almost exclusively from France, but to-day the United States is practically the only source of supply. It is said that the American webbing is preferred to the French because it is firmer, cheaper, and more durable.

Certain well-known American makes of suspenders are widely advertised and are sold extensively throughout Brazil, and all the styles in common use in the United States enjoy a good demand. Only

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fancy articles are now imported from France. It is well to note that rubber goods in general manufactured in the United States enjoy a reduction of 20 per cent from the Brazilian custom duties.

As a rule suspenders intended for Brazil should have as little metal as possible. In certain parts of the country the heat induces abundant perspiration, which quickly rusts the buckles and other metal parts. Leather tips are practically not used, as the climate hardens the leather and makes it very brittle.

All the well-known American makes of men's garters are in good demand. Most of the demand is satisfied by the imports of the finished article, although, as in the case of suspenders, some factories import the elastic and fittings and assemble them, putting the garters on the market as of domestic manufacture.

Belts are practically not used by the better classes in Brazil. Even among the laboring classes the market is very limited, as the Portuguese stevedores, dock laborers, and porters cling to the habit of their mother country of wearing a bright-colored cloth band, usually red, twisted about the waist. Such belts as are worn by these workmen are, as a rule, only leather straps with ordinary harness buckles and are made in the country by the local saddlers or shoemakers.

HANDKERCHIEFS.

The handkerchiefs in greatest demand in the country are made of cotton. For the qualities imported from abroad the prices vary between 6 francs ($1.16) and 8 francs ($1.54) per dozen. Linen handkerchiefs also are used to a considerable extent, but only in the large cities. In fact, the qualities and styles of handkerchiefs used in Brazil do not differ essentially from what would be used by similar classes of the population in the United States. The greatest sale is for plain white cotton handkerchiefs with a plain white border, although there is a fair demand for fancy borders. There is very little call for colored handkerchiefs with fancy designs printed on the material.

Genuine silk handkerchiefs enjoy a limited sale in the large cities, but most of the articles sold as silk are mercerized cotton and are well regarded.

The fine linen goods are imported mostly from Portugal, France, and England. Women's handkerchiefs in "linon," with hand embroideries and real-lace trimmings, are largely imported from Belgium. Their price varies from 15 to 50 francs ($2.90 to $9.65) each. Handkerchiefs of "batiste," hemstitched and with borders printed in colors, have a very good sale.

Brazil has several factories, which, however, do not make a specialty of this article. Nearly all the lingerie shops make handkerchiefs also. These Brazilian articles are nearly all of cotton and vary in size between 30 by 30 centimeters (11.8 by 11.8 inches) and 35 by 36 centimeters (13.78 by 14.17 inches). The imported goods are almost always 50 by 50 centimeters (19.68 by 19.68 inches).

The following are the current prices of handkerchiefs of various qualities and materials: Cotton cambric, hemstitched, $2.16 per dozen; linen cambric, $3.60 to $6 per dozen; pure linen, plain hem, $2.88 per dozen; cotton batiste, fancy border, $1.44 to $1.92 per dozen; pure silk, white or colors, $4.32 to $14.40 per dozen; fancy handkerchiefs, cotton batiste, trimmed with imitation Brussels lace,

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$1.20 to $1.92 each; cotton muslin trimmed with lace, 30 by 30 centimeters, $0.36 to $0.96 each. For French goods the following prices are current: Pure Irish linen with initials, 17 francs ($3.28) per dozen; pure linen batiste, embroidered, 50 by 50 centimeters, 60 francs ($11.58) per dozen; pure linen batiste, hemstitched, hand-embroidered initials, 34 francs ($6.56) per dozen. English cotton handkerchiefs, hemstitched, cost $1.68 to $2.40 per dozen, and English linen handkerchiefs, $2.88 to $3.84 per dozen.

PAJAMAS AND NIGHT SHIRTS.

As in nearly all tropical countries, the use of pajamas is general in Brazil and replaces almost entirely that of the nightshirt. Not only are pajamas the most convenient form of sleeping raiment for the frequent hot nights when only the lightest covering is supportable, but they are also much used as a lounging suit in one's own apartments. The cut and the quality of material employed differ in no essential respect from what is current in the United States. Both the straight standing collar and the wide rolling collar are popular and in equal demand. Buttons, as a rule, are used on the coat, and braid is applied as trimming down the front of the coat, around the buttons and buttonholes. In general, the trimming follows the fashions prevailing in London and Paris. When plain-colored materials are employed, the collars, cuffs, and pockets are often of the same material in white. Plain and printed drills, fancy cheviots, and light flannelettes are the most popular materials; there is some demand for pongees and white China silks.

The factories that manufacture men's shirts also make pajamas, which are sold to the department stores and general stores throughout the country. In the large cities the better class of men's furnishing stores usually carry pajamas in fashionable styles made up especially for them. The retail prices vary from $2.40 to $6, being just about double those current in the United States for the same styles and qualities. Sizes cover a wider range than in the United States and are stated in centimeters, indicating the circumference of the neck opening. The most common sizes are 40 (15.75 inches), 42 (16.54 inches), 44 (17.32 inches), and 46 (18.11 inches.)

Compared with American standards, the sale in Brazil of ready-made night garments is not large, as the better classes have them made to order by their own shirt makers, and the poorer classes use the homemade article.

WOMEN'S WEAR.

The Brazilian woman of fashion follows scrupulously whatever may be the mode of the moment in the great European capitals. She is inclined to expend liberally and without carefully counting the cost. Although Brazil is a hot country, enjoying only two well-defined seasons, it actually possesses all the seasons as far as fashions are concerned. It is not uncommon to see furs worn in Rio de Janeiro in December (midsummer) because December happens to be the month when furs are being worn in Europe. Paris is the mirror of style for Brazil, and it is always Paris that gives the tone. The fact that the prevailing Parisian fashion may be entirely unsuited to the Brazilian climate and season is seldom taken into consideration.

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DRESSES.

Silk costumes enjoy the greatest popularity. They are worn by the majority of the fashionable set in the cities for afternoon calls, teas, promenades, and receptions. The preference seems to be for solid-color silks, or "Pekin" silks with narrow stripes, generally on dark blue or black grounds. The satin costume also is in great favor. Satin onde is employed on account of its softness and its wearing qualities. Taffetas also are much used, especially for entire costumes. A coat or blouse of a different tone from that of the skirt is popular. For these combinations taffeta is the material most in demand, although white satin also is well regarded for blouses. In women's clothes a great variety of textiles is used, of wool, silk, or cotton and silk, not only in plain colors but also in fancy designs.

Textiles of damasked silk or satin, with flowered designs or other patterns imitating embroideries in high relief, the textiles commonly called London grosgrain silk, Ottoman, and faille, charmeuse, granitée and bengaline, moiré silk in changeable colors, and velvets of all kinds are at present much worn. Among other fabrics must be mentioned silk muslins, liberty satin, crêpe de chine, cashmere, and tulle, which are in demand throughout the year. In short, it may be repeated that the upper-class Brazilian woman dresses like the Parisian and the women's wearing-apparel trade is one of the most important industries of the country.

As is the case in the large European cities, Rio de Janeiro is well supplied with private dressmaking establishments, generally of foreign origin. The dressmakers receive very good prices for their products, a ball dress often costing as much as 2 contos of reis ($480), while the prices of costumes for afternoon wear in the city vary from $48 to $84. Besides these fashionable establishments there are also a great number of minor establishments that make women's dresses at prices ranging from $43.20 to $60.

The middle class purchase large quantities of ready-made clothing at the department stores and clothing establishments. Leaving aside the question of exclusive designs and individual fittings, this clothing compares very favorably in make and finish with the made-to-order clothing, since as a rule it is made up especially for the stores by their own workers and by dressmakers working for them on order on a small scale. As large stocks are not carried the stores are able to keep fairly abreast of the prevailing fashions. Should fashions change before stocks are exhausted the surplus is generally sold to smaller shops in less fashionable parts of the cities or to stores in cities of the interior.

The current prices for complete costumes of different materials are as follows:

Costumes:
- Cotton drill, all colors, $7.20.
- Cotton drill, white, $12.
- Crêpon, $14.
- Fancy crêpon, $18.72.
- Crêpe de chine, silk-lined, $42.
- White etamine, trimmed with hand embroideries and open-work plissée, $29.52.
- Taffeta, with collar and cuffs of lingerie, $22.80 to $28.80.
- Linen with embroideries, $16.08 to $17.28.

Model coats, fine liberty gauze, $16.80.
Tailor-made costume, summer, cotton gabardine, $6.96.

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It is extremely difficult for imported costumes to compete with these cheap and medium-priced Brazilian dresses on account of the high customs duties. Some costumes "de grand luxe," ready-made or half-finished, are imported, but as a rule these are brought in as baggage by families returning from Europe and frequently escape the customs duties.

Under the circumstances, therefore, the chief interest of exporters lies in the materials used in the manufacture of women's dresses. The following table shows the quality and width of goods used and their prevailing prices:

Articles.	Width.		Prices per meter.
SILK.	*Centimeters.*	*Inches.*	
Damask, pure black silk	50	19.69	$2.16–$3.84
Faille, pure black silk	55	21.65	1.92– 3.84
Liberty satin	45–60	17.72–23.62	1.20– 3.36
Japanese pongee	52	20.47	.72 up
Soft satin	90	35.43	5.04– 6.48
Black messaline	45–52	17.72–20.47	1.20– 2.04
Crêpe de chine	110	43.31	3.00– 5.28
Eolienne	120	47.24	2.88– 3.60
Grenadine	120	47.24	2.40– 3.84
Muslin gauze	120	47.24	.67– 1.32
Chiffon gauze	120	47.24	1.44– 2.06
Foulard, with printed patterns			3.60– 6.00
Voile Ninon	120	47.24	2.40– 3.84
WOOL AND SILK AND WOOL.			
Merino, black	120	47.24	1.15– 2.02
Merino, cashmere	120	47.24	2.40– 3.46
Crêpon, pure wool			1.68– 3.36
Serge, pure wool			1.82– 2.93
Crêpon, wool and silk	120	47.24	3.26– 3.84
Diagonal, pure wool	120	47.24	2.14– 2.45
Voile Pekin, silk stripes			3.74– 4.08
Eolienne, Pekinee, wool and silk	110	43.31	3.84– 4.32
Eolienne, crepe, wool and silk	120	47.24	4.32– 4.80
Voile réligieuse, white, cream	100	39.37	1.08– 2.30

COSTUMES FOR WORKING CLASSES—CLOAKS—SWEATERS.

The foregoing descriptions of costumes and materials employed in their manufacture apply principally to the upper and middle classes of city dwellers, who constitute a comparatively small percentage of the population of Brazil. The costume of most working women and of the country people is very simple, consisting almost exclusively of a skirt and loose blouse or jacket of cheap cotton cloth made in Brazil. These garments are made at home or bought in the second-class shops at very low prices. No competition is possible with these costumes for either imported garments or imported material.

The sale of cloaks in Brazil is so limited that no stocks of any importance are carried by the department stores and clothing establishments. In all the principal cities, especially in the north, the climate is so warm that no outer wraps are required in the daytime. In some of the southern cities, such as Rio de Janeiro, Petropolis, São Paulo, and Rio Grande do Sul, the temperature in the winter months falls sufficiently on rainy days to necessitate the wearing of woolen clothing, but not enough to require overcoats and wraps in addition. It is in these cities that cloaks are used to some extent at

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night when light evening dresses are worn. This is, however, only by the well to do, who are accustomed to go out to dinners, receptions, theaters, and other social entertainments. The cloaks are made by the local dressmakers and brought in especially by the foreign dressmakers who visit Paris periodically to obtain the latest models in women's wearing apparel. There is no distinctly national style; the styles follow the prevailing fashions for opera cloaks, and the material generally is dark worsted or broadcloth lined with colored silk. Fur is used quite extensively for trimming. For evening wear in the summer time fancy silk fabrics are employed, trimmed with lace. The prices vary according to the materials used, and are as a rule about 50 per cent higher than those for similar goods in the United States.

Sweaters and sweater coats do not occupy a place of any importance in the women's wearing-apparel trade of Brazil. A very limited demand is found only in the cities of Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, and Petropolis, where an extremely small percentage of the population, consisting mostly of foreign residents, may indulge in tennis or other exercise. Only a few styles are carried by the leading department stores, the models following those of sweater coats and sport coats in current use in the United States and England. Both woven silk and wool are worn, but the preference appears to be for silk. On account of the high duties and the restricted demand, the retail prices are about double those for the same qualities in the United States. The taste in colors runs mostly to pinks, blues, greens, yellow, and pearl, although there is some call for white and light brown. England has been the principal source of supply, but of late American goods have entered the market and are well received.

LININGS.

No linings, either for men's clothes or for women's suits, are manufactured in Brazil; all are imported, mostly from Belgium and France. The widths and pre-war retail prices at Valparaiso of the qualities of linings most commonly used were as follows:

Articles.	Widths.		Prices per meter.
COTTON.	*Centimeters.*	*Inches.*	
"Royal" silk, all colors	20–80	7.87–31.50	$0.24–$0.34
Metim taffeta	20–80	7.87–31.50	.34– .38
Satinette	20	7.87	.36– .43
Nainsook batiste	60	23.62	.05
	70	27.56	.19
	80	31.50	.24
Serge, satin	72	28.35	.22– .34
Metim glacé	75–80	29.53–31.50	.17– .19
Polonaise			.29– .34
Ecossaise			.19– .24
SILK.			
Taffeta	48–55	18.90–21.65	.72– 1.56
Polonaise	50	19.69	.67– .96
Toile d'acier, silk and cotton	110	43.31	1.44– 1.68
Poplin, linen and silk	45	17.72	.53– .77

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The following are the factory prices of about the same classes of goods of French origin:

Articles.	Widths.		Prices per meter.	
LININGS.	*Centimeters.*	*Inches.*	*Francs.*	
Satinette, similé	75–80	29.53–31.50	1.15	$0.222
Polonaise, cotton	75–80	29.53–31.50	1.75	.338
Similé fantaisie	75–80	29.53–31.50	1.25	.241
Fine satinette	85	33.46	1.75	.338
	130	51.18	2.25	.434
LIGHT SILK FABRICS.				
Paillette and merveilleux			2.90– 3.90	.56 – .753
Duchesse mousseline			11.50	2.22 up.
Fancy taffeta	50	19.69	3.80– 5.80	.733–1.12
Messaline	45–50	17.72–19.69	3.00	.579
Satin, ivory-white			3.90– 5.90	.753–1.14
Moiré velouté	110	43.31	12.00–16.00	2.316–3.088
Bengaline	105	41.34	8.00–11.00	1.544–2.123
Crêpe de chine	105	41.34	6.00–10.00	1.158–1.93
Crêpe de cashmere	105	41.34	8.00	1.544
Crêpe Japonais	100	39.37	10.00	1.93

UNDERWEAR AND LINGERIE.

In Brazil practically all underwear might be classified as lingerie; knit goods are very little used. It might be said that they are not worn at all were it not for a small element of the foreign population that has been accustomed to their use in the home country and a few of the better-class Brazilians, who also use knitted underwear in the winter months. The small quantities of knit goods sold are imported principally from France and England. The climatic conditions and the character of the outer garments worn favor the use of lighter and more delicate materials for underwear. The undervest is generally of knitted silk, crêpe de santé, or lisle thread. The shades are almost always half-tone. The following list shows the prices of underwear f. o. b. a European port:

Articles.	Prices.	
	Francs.	
Woven undervest:		
Fine mesh, Indian cotton gauze, white	4.50	$0.87
Wool	8.50– 9.25	$1.64–1.79
Wool and silk	9.25–10.50	1.79–2.03
Crêpe de santé (silk)	8.00	1.54
Fine mesh, santé (wool)	4.25	.82
Chinese cotton—		
Beige, gray	3.50	.68
Cream	2.95	.57
White	3.25	.63
Woven combination:		
White and beige, wool sleeves	11.90–13.50	2.30–2.61
Wool mixture	8.90	1.72
Cotton	6.75	1.30
Silk	15.50	2.99
Lisle thread, sleeveless	7.00	1.35
Woven drawers:		
Half-silk, rose, black, and white	4.90–10.00	.95–1.93
Silk	26.00	5.02
Milan silk	23.50	4.54
Cotton	3.75	.72
Wool	11.50	2.22
Wool and silk	14.00	2.70
Elastic in legs, wool, white, rose, and black	5.00–6.00	.97–1.16
White drawers, linen	4.50–5.00	.87– .97
Guimpe:		
Crêpon de santé, sleeveless, silk, lace-trimmed	6.75–8.00	1.30–1.54
Wool	4.75–5.50	92–1.06
Linen	3.40–4.50	.66– .87

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The retail prices at which these articles are sold to the consumers are more than double those given in the table.

The chemises worn by women of the upper classes are short, generally of fine surah, cambric, crêpe de chine, and even of Milan silk. The drawers are of the same materials, style Louis XV, open at the sides. The trimmings usually consist of embroideries and lace sewed to the fabrics. The nightdresses, as a rule, are of the style known as "Magyar," or sometimes as "American," without buttons, but very décolleté and with lace insertions. Generally a lace cap in the same style of trimming as the nightdress is worn.

The trade in fine lingerie in Brazil is fairly well developed, but only in the few large cities. As is the case with nearly all high-class articles, the lingerie "de luxe" is imported, the fine handmade goods coming principally from France and Belgium. The fabrics are principally silk and very fine linen, the trimmings consisting of lace, often handmade, and hand embroideries in the fabric. Portugal also sends to Brazil considerable lingerie of medium quality; some also comes from Madeira and Teneriffe. The material is usually linen, trimmed with hand embroideries. Although the Portuguese goods are not so fine as those of France and Belgium, they are sold for good prices, ranging from $4.32 to $6.72 each. The demand for these chemises, however, can not be considered great. Chemises of silk, for day use, are worn to some extent and are obtained chiefly from France and Italy.

The production of lingerie in Brazil is confined to coarse articles of calico and medium goods of plain cotton cloth. Linen is very little used in the domestic factories, which are few in number. In the city of Rio de Janeiro, aside from an establishment controlled by one of the principal department stores (the "Parc Royal"), there is no factory of such goods selling to the trade. Many commercial houses of secondary importance manufacture exclusively for themselves, selling the goods at retail. Thus Brazil is dependent upon imports for fine and medium-grade lingerie.

The lingerie usually worn by the middel classes is made of cotton and is trimmed with cotton lace, imitation "Valenciennes," and with insertions. The embroideries for this grade of lingerie are always sewed to the cloth.

The lingerie in general use by the women of the lower classes is very simple and very coarse. The material employed is always strong cotton cloth, heavily starched to give it a better appearance. The cut is plain and uniform and the garments are poorly finished and without trimming. The prices of these popular articles are fairly low for the country and run about 34 cents, 48 cents, 67 cents, 91 cents, and 96 cents per chemise.

The articles used by the middle classes are of more interest to foreign merchants and bring good prices. The fabrics employed are usually nainsook, batiste, and percale, and the garments are profusely trimmed with machine embroidery and imitation lace. The nightdresses always have wide sleeves. The prices have a wide range, according to the quality, running from $1.68 to $3.60 per chemise. The nightdresses, which are always much adorned with lace and often with silk ribbons, obtain better prices, varying from $1.68 to $4.32.

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The imported goods of French origin run from 4 to 7 francs ($0.77 to $1.35). A large French house (Le Printemps of Paris) exports considerable quantities of these articles in fine cotton shirtings, half-finished, at prices varying from 5.50 to 8 francs ($1.06 to $1.55) each. Styles and comparative values can be appreciated only by an examination of samples.

Very good prices are obtained for the fine lingerie imported almost exclusively from France and Belgium. A French chemise of white nainsook, with insertions and English embroidery and linen thread lace, cost 18 to 40 francs ($3.47 to $7.72), and a French chemise of white nainsook or cambric, with machine embroidery and imitation Valenciennes lace, cost 16 to 32 francs ($3.09 to $6.18). The former is sold at retail at $6.24 to $12.48, and the latter at $5.28 to $10.80 each. The drawers are always made to match the chemise in material and style of trimming.

Drawers are little worn by the lower classes in Brazil and the limited demand is supplied by the domestic production. The material is usually cheap cotton cloth trimmed with flounces or ruffles. The prices run from $0.60 to $1.08. Better-quality goods, in nainsook, batiste, white shirtings, and cotton and linen mixed, often trimmed with torchon lace, insertions, and embroidery, sell at $1.27 to $2.40.

The fine and medium-grade imported lingerie generally comes in assortments of three or four pieces of the same style and quality, consisting of chemise, nightdress, drawers, and corset cover. The following list shows the cost prices of such assortments:

Materials.	Chemise.		Corset cover.		Drawers.		Nightgown.	
Nainsook, trimmed with insertion, embroidery, and linen lace	*Francs.* 8	$1.54	*Francs.* 8	$1.54	*Francs.* 8	$1.54	*Francs.* 14	$2.70
Nainsook, trimmed with imitation Valenciennes lace	10	1.93	10	1.93	10	1.93	19	3.67
Pure linen cambric, embroidered flowers, open-work hand embroidery in light blue	15–21	2.90–4.05	12–19	2.32–3.67	16–27	3.09–5.21	21–45	4.05–8.69
Silk voile, trimmed with Berthe lace at neck and waist	45	8.69	.....	.....	49	9.46	79	15.25
Fine linen cambric, profusely trimmed	52	10.04	.....	.....	39	7.53	65	12.55

It is readily seen that in the lower grades of underwear and lingerie there is practically no business to be done but that for the medium and finer grades of lingerie a fair demand exists and good prices are obtainable in the large cities of Brazil. It is also evident that the trimming and general appearance are very important factors, the Brazilian taste in this respect requiring more profuse adornment than is generally demanded by the American market. A few touches of lace and colored ribbons add much more to the sale value than is represented by their intrinsic cost. Style and appearance account for much of the popularity of the French goods.

Bloomers are not worn to any extent in Brazil at present. They had a certain vogue a few years ago when they were used in place of petticoats.

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SHIRT WAISTS, APRONS, AND BELTS.

The shirt waist has not as yet attained any degree of popularity in Brazil, as the separate tailor-made skirt of serge or cheviot is very little worn. Lace blouses or silk blouses of the same material as the skirt are more frequently used. The shirt waist is nevertheless offered for sale in all the clothing establishments, being generally made exclusively for them in their own shops or by individual dressmakers. The demand is not sufficiently large to justify importation on a large scale, and small quantities received from abroad, paying the high customs duties, could not compete favorably with the Brazilian articles. The styles and materials employed do not differ essentially from those sold in the United States, except that the Brazilian taste demands more embroidery, lace trimming, and insertion.

The demand for aprons is confined almost entirely to those for domestic servants and nursemaids. The Brazilian woman of the middle and upper classes is not accustomed to perform work that would necessitate protecting her dress. Hence no market exists for the finer fancy aprons.

The aprons worn by the lower domestic servants are of coarse cotton cloth or calico, the product of the Brazilian mills, and are, as a rule, made at home. There is no factory production, but some of the retail stores carry limited stocks of aprons that are made up for them. In the principal cities the parlor maids and waitresses in the best families use the fine white aprons of the style usually worn by English servants of this class. A few of the best families in the same cities also dress their nursemaids in uniform, the typical English nursemaid's dress with the white apron and cap with streamers being the fashion adopted. These housemaids' and nursemaids' aprons are usually made to order by the local dressmakers, although they are also carried in a limited way by the better-class department and clothing stores. This line of wearing apparel offers little or no interest to foreign manufacturers.

The only belt worn at present, especially by young girls of the working class, is enameled leather in black, red, or brown, varying in price from $0.72 to $1.20 each. The corresponding price in the United States would be $2 to $4 per dozen.

Belts of elastic-silk fabrics with printed designs are no longer worn. At present there is no field in Brazil for the foreign manufacturer of this kind of belt.

NEGLIGEES.

The true kimono is little used in Brazil. The name kimono, however, has come to have an elastic meaning and includes many garments that form an important part of the Brazilian woman's wardrobe. Among these may be mentioned "peignoirs," "robes de chambre," and "matinées," or morning wraps. Of all the house robes none is in greater demand than the matinée, which is even worn as a street dress by a great part of the Brazilian population, especially in the interior of the country. Even in Rio de Janeiro colored persons, women of the laboring class, use it to a great extent

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for common daily wear on all occasions. This custom is due to the hot climate, which requires very light wearing apparel.

The variety of morning wraps is very great. In general, they are of domestic manufacture, although there is also considerable importation, principally of the kimono type. The fabrics most used for this manufacture are fine nainsook, pongenettes, flanelettes, and white etamine. The imported articles are made of nainsook, cambric, and crêpon. These garments are profusely trimmed with cotton lace and linen imitation Valenciennes lace. Many are trimmed with machine or hand embroidery.

The following are the prices of matinées of different materials: Fancy lawn, $1.80 to $2.40; pongenette, with insertion and imitation Valenciennes lace, $4.80 to $7.20; etamine, with insertion and lace, $6 to $8.40; nainsook, long, reaching to about the knees, and trimmed with lace and colored silk ribbons, $6 to $12; kimono style, imported in woolen crêpon, trimmed with embroideries and lace, reaching a little below the hips, 15 to 25 francs ($2.90 to $4.83), selling at retail for 22 to 43 milreis ($5.28 to $10.32). Outside of two large department stores in Rio de Janeiro (Parc Royal and Casa Colombo) there is no factory for this article, which is much sold by the Turkish and Syrian merchants in Brazil.

The peignoir also is in great demand, but only in large cities, where it is worn by the women of the upper and middle classes. The current style is made of striped zephyr with printed designs and of etamine and is sold at prices varying from $4.32 to $7.20. These articles are manufactured in Brazil. The first qualities are imported mostly from France and England and command at retail prices ranging from $14.40 to $240. The fabrics used are charmeuse, liberty textiles, silk voile, and crêpe de chine.

A knitted jacket of wool, cotton and wool, and silk and wool has a well-developed sale, especially in the southern States, and the States of Rio de Janeiro and Minas Geraes. France and Belgium exported considerable quantities of these articles. A house of southern France in Nay Tyrene (Bergeron & Co.) enjoyed a good trade in the cities of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo. The quality of the textiles used may be seen from the samples. The prices range from $10.80 to $19.20. Knitted jackets of artificial silk of different colors are also sold; most of them, however, are of mercerized cotton, lined with silk of the same shade as the jacket. Prices run from $14.40 to $28.80.

CORSETS.

The corset industry in Brazil is one of the good lines of business, which is every day assuming larger proportions. In hot countries the climate and mode of living appear to induce corpulency and render necessary the use of the modern corset. Moreover, corsets do not last long in a climate like that of Brazil because abundant perspiration quickly rusts the springs and clasps and causes the fabrics to deteriorate.

The type of corset most in favor among well-dressed women is the straight front. The characteristic of these corsets is the suppression of metallic springs and the almost exclusive use of supple whalebone

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which yields to every movement. They are long in the hips but short above the waist. The most in vogue is the so-called "Tailler" corset, manufactured by an old-established corset maker of Rio de Janeiro. The fashion of the day does not favor the trimmings and ribbons with which it was formerly customary to adorn the corsets, especially those of German make. The use of corset covers has brought about this change from profuse adornment, which was very high-priced in Brazil and made it necessary to have as many corsets as styles of costume, since they were worn to match the shade of the skirt and of the robe. White, rose, and light blue are the colors now most in demand by women of fashion. The textiles most commonly employed are solid colors or with a very modest design. Small dots or flowers in the same tone as the material itself are alone considered in good taste. Batiste, satin-finished drills, imitation "Manon" satines and silk batiste, and imitation brocades are the materials used most in making the better-grade corsets. The trimming usually consists of a fine lace with narrow ribbon around the top and the sides of the front opening. The lacings are generally of the silk tubular variety, agreeing in color with the tone of the corset. Mercerized cotton also is much used. The old round or flat cord is no longer used except for very cheap corsets.

Under the Brazilian customs tariff law corsets of cotton or of linen must pay on the basis of 8 milreis each, which sum is estimated to be 50 per cent of the arbitrary value Taking into consideration the percentage of duties that must be paid in gold, the actual duties in paper would be about 13$800, or $3.31 each. Corsets of silk pay on the basis of 20 milreis each, estimated at 60 per cent of the value. The actual duties would be equivalent to about 34$200 paper, or $8.20 each. By special decree corsets manufactured in the United States enjoy a reduction of 20 per cent in the customs duties. Even allowing for this reduction, however, it is evident that no corsets can be imported into Brazil to sell for less than $33.40 per dozen at wholesale, and exporters to Brazil must of necessity look to find their market in the medium and finer grades. A corset selling in the United States for $3 would cost in Brazil $5.75. The question, then, for the American exporter is whether an American $3 corset is better in quality, fit, style, and finish than a Brazilian $5.75 corset. This leads directly to a study of the Brazilian production.

The trade in corsets in Brazil can be divided into two distinct branches, as to both manufacture and clientele. In the first class is the wholesale manufacturer who as a rule makes only the cheap and medium-grade goods, which are resold by the retail establishments, and in the second class are found the manufacturers of corsets to measure, who supply the well-to-do clients.

Wholesale factories are very few in Brazil. Rio de Janeiro has only three, São Paulo two, and Rio Grande do Sul one. These houses have machines for cutting up the fabrics; these are then sent to the workwomen, who, as a rule, are employed on piecework. Only two or three models of corsets are made by them, at prices more or less uniform. The textiles usually employed are strong cotton drills of domestic manufacture and rather coarse, and some cheap imported cotton goods. There is little difference in the few styles made; they

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are all of the long form, or half-long, and very heavy. This considerable weight is due to the numerous materials used. There are always a pair of clasps, two dozen ribs (of horn), and two pairs of metallic springs. These same factories make the waist belts, which are in good demand, with cotton elastic webbing, 14 centimeters (5.51 inches) wide at the waist. The body of the belt is generally made of cotton drill and is stiffened by 20 ribs and fitted with a pair of clasps. The corsets and belts are fitted with two pairs of stocking supporters of white metal attached to cotton elastic. Five meters (5.47 yards) of round cotton lacings accompany each corset.

The following are the descriptions and prices of some of the models made by one of the largest factories of Rio de Janeiro:

Belt "Royale," cotton drill; form, half-long; elastic, 14 centimeters (5.51 inches) wide at waist; wholesale price, $3.60; retail price, $4.80.

Belt "Rita," cotton batiste, plain; same model as above; wholesale price, $3.36; retail price, $4.32.

Corset "Diana," brocaded batiste, cotton; 22 ribs, 3 pairs of springs; trimmed with cotton lace and imitation satin ribbon 5 millimeters (0.20 inch) wide; wholesale price, $5.40; retail price, $7.68.

Corset "Charmette," plain cotton; long model; with insertion of a band of elastic web at bottom of corset; wholesale price, $4.80; retail price, $6.72.

Corset "Manon," plain cloth; long model; wholesale price, $3.48; retail price, $4.80.

These descriptions and prices illustrate the types of corsets worn by the middle classes. Each lingerie house sells different exclusive brands, but nearly all come from the same factories and differ from one another only in name.

In addition to the types described, the same factories turn out on a large scale corsets to sell at $14.40, $21.60, and $28.80 per dozen. The principal buyers of these corsets are the Turkish or Armenian houses, which send pack peddlers throughout the interior of the country selling on the installment plan with weekly or monthly payments. With these corsets ranging in factory price from $1.20 to $2.40 each, it is impossible for a similar imported article to compete, as the customs duties alone are more than this first cost. The class of people who buy these corsets do not pay any great attention to style and finish.

Nevertheless, Brazil receives from abroad considerable quantities of ready-made corsets "de luxe" and corsets for daily wear, France and Belgium having been the principal suppliers before the war. These corsets were sold more for their style and appearance than on account of their price. The prices ranged from 8.50 to 32 francs ($1.64 to $6.18) each, f. o. b. European port. Italy, England, and Germany also had some export trade in this line, but the preference was decidedly for French and Belgian goods.

The United States has been able since the war to introduce some of the well-known American makes on the Brazilian market. Among them may be mentioned a style in batiste, silk-brocaded, lacing in front, with silk elastic webbing, which costs delivered in Rio about $5.71 and which is retailed at $8.40. This type of corset, however, lacing in front on the left side, is in very little demand. Two other American corsets cost $5.16 and $5.71 laid down in Rio and are resold

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at $7.68 and $9.84, and an American corset that costs in the United States $1.50 up is sold in Brazil at $5.28 to $6.72. These corsets reach the middle classes and come into competition with the Brazilian factory-made corsets of the better grade.

The corsets worn by the wealthier classes are generally made locally to measure and command much higher prices. The heavy corsets, with three or four pairs of springs and 20 ribs, are worn only by the working class and the people of the interior.

The manufacture of corsets to measure is the most interesting branch of the of the corset industry in Brazil, as it serves the class of trade that might also be the consumer of the higher-grade imported corsets. Nearly all these individual corset makers sell not only the corsets actually made by them to measure, but also imported corsets, which they represent as their own product. The prices vary from $10.80 to $36 each. Corsetières are to be found in all the cities of Brazil, but they are especially numerous in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo.

A general idea of the styles and prices of some of the corsets in greatest demand may be obtained from the following descriptive list:

"Francillon," maternity corset, double lacing in front, $19.20 to $36.

"Tailleur," long form, French type, satin batiste or drill, $14.40 to $28.80.

"Mystere," fine batiste, silk-brocaded, straight front, hip-reducing, $19.20 to $26.40.

"Louis XV," with four very flexible ribs on each side over the hips, $14.40 to $36 each, according to material employed, the higher price being for rich silk.

"Pompadour," long form, very short above the waist, one pair of springs, eight ribs, plain drill, $14.40; brocaded drill, $16.80; plain or brocaded batiste, $19.20; silk, $24 to $28.80.

The corsetières, when not busy with special orders, make up stock goods in the same models and grades, which they sell at retail at the same prices.

There are many minor establishments catering to a less expensive trade at prices ranging from $10.80 to $19.20 for corsets to measure and from $9.60 to $14.40 for goods from stock.

Belt waists, also manufactured in the country, are much worn. The principal styles are "Frou-Frou," with elastic web 14 centimeters (5.51 inches) wide at the waist, in drill, lacing behind, and made up as a corset at $9.60, and "Merveilleuse," made entirely of silk elastic, closing with clasps, without lacings, at $9.12 to $12.

Practically all the corsets used in Brazil, except the cheapest grades, have hose supporters attached. These are of the usual style of metal clasps with elastic band, varying in quality according to the finish and grade of the corset.

The following table shows the materials used in the manufacture of corsets in Brazil and the factory prices before the war of the four French houses that exported these textiles and accessories to Brazil in the largest quantities. Present prices are 20 to 40 per cent higher.

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Articles.	Prices.	
	Francs.	U. S. currency.
Textiles:	*Per meter.*	*Per yard.*
Imitation Manon satin, 0.70 meter (27.56 inches) wide	5.50	$0.97
Batiste (all shades), 0.70 meter wide	6.75–9.00 10.25–18.00	1.19–1.59 1.80–3.17
Cotton batiste, 0.70 meter wide	3.50–7.50	.62–1.32
Batiste drill, 0.70 meter wide	3.75–13.50	.66–2.38
Silk batiste, 0.70 meter wide	4.25–12.00	.75–2.11
Ninon silk, 1.40 meters (55.12 inches) wide	11.00	1.94
Tulle grec, 1.80 meters (70.87 inches) wide	3.00	.53
Brocade—		
Cotton, 0.70 meter wide	2.75	.49
Cotton, 1.40 meters wide	5.75–8.75	1.01–1.54
Silk, 0.70 meter wide	7.65–10.50	1.35–1.85
Silk, 1.40 meters wide	8.75–12.50	1.54–2.20
Evreux, 1.40 meters wide—		
White	2.65–8.25	.47–1.46
Colors	4.00–7.25	.71–1.28
Elastic:		
Cotton, all shades	.50, .60, .70, .90, 1.05	.09, .11, .12, .16, .18
Cotton, mercerized—		
All shades	1.25, 1.30, 1.45, 1.55	.22, .23, .26, .27
Solid colors	1.25	.22
Cotton and silk	1.85	.33
Cotton and silk-ribbed	1.25	.22
White amd cream elastic for corset belts:		
Superior quality—		
4 centimeters (1.57 inches) wide	3.25	.57
5 centimeters (1.97 inches) wide	3.75	.66
6 centimeters (2.36 inches) wide	4.50	.79
8 centimeters (3.15 inches) wide	5.75	1.01
10 centimeters (3.94 inches) wide	8.75	1.54
12 centimeters (4.72 inches) wide	9.25	1.63
14 centimeters (5.51 inches) wide	10.00	1.76
16 centimeters (6.30 inches) wide	12.00	2.11
20 centimeters (7.87 inches) wide	15.00	2.64
25 centimeters (9.84 inches) wide	29.00	5.12
Other—		
4 centimeters (1.57 inches) wide	1.00	.18
5 centimeters (1.97 inches) wide	1.15	.20
6 centimeters (2.36 inches) wide	1.35	.24
8 centimeters (3.15 inches) wide	1.80	.32
10 centimeters (3.94 inches) wide	2.25	.40
12 centimeters (4.72 inches wide)	3.00	.53
14 centimeters (5.51 inches) wide	3.50	.62
16 centimeters (6.30 inches) wide	4.25	.75
20 centimeters (7.87 inches) wide	5.25	.93
25 centimeters (9.84 inches) wide	6.75	1.19
Lacings:	*Per piece of 100 meters.*	*Per piece of 109.36 yards.*
Mercerized cotton—		
Flat	5.50–5.75	$1.06–1.11
Wide	8.00–9.50	1.54–1.83
Silk—		
Wide	16.00–22.50	3.09–4.34
Very wide	25.00–29.50	4.83–5.69
Flat, 0.5 centimeter (0.197 inch) wide	26.00–31.00	5.02–5.98
Serge "Volcan":	*Per 100 meters.*	*Per 100 yards.*
White—		
5 centimeters (1.97 inches) wide	6.00	$1.06
6 centimeters (2.36 inches) wide	6.50	1.15
8 centimeters (3.15 inches) wide	7.50	1.32
9 centimeters (3.54 inches) wide	8.50	1.50
10 centimeters (3.94 inches) wide	9.58	1.69
12 centimeters (4.72 inches) wide	10.75	1.92
14 centimeters (5.51 inches) wide	12.50	2.20
16 centimeters (6.30 inches) wide	13.75	2.42
In 14 colors—		
5 centimeters (1.97 inches) wide	10.00	1.76
6 centimeters (2.36 inches) wide	13.25	2.33
8 centimeters (3.15 inches) wide	16.00	2.32
9 centimeters (3.54 inches) wide	19.00	3.35
10 centimeters (3.94 inches) wide	25.00	4.41
Velvet galon, 5 centimeters (1.97 inches) wide	17.00	2.99
Ribbon, watered, 3½ centimeters (1.38 inches) wide	6.50	1.15

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Articles.	Prices.	
	Francs.	U. S. currency.
Ribbon:	*Per piece of 10 meters.*	*Per piece of 10 yards.*
Faille sublime—		
6 centimeters (2.36 inches wide)	2.50	$0.44
8 centimeters (3.15 inches) wide	3.25	.57
10 centimeters (3.94 inches) wide	4.00	.71
12 centimeters (4.72 inches) wide	4.50	.80
14 centimeters (5.51 inches) wide	5.00	.88
16 centimeters (6.30 inches) wide	5.75	1.01
Liberty—		
3 centimeters (1.18 inches) wide	2.50	.44
5 centimeters (1.97 inches) wide	3.25	.57
9 centimeters (3.54 inches) wide	4.75	.84
12 centimeters (4.72 inches) wide	6.00	1.06
Liberty matte—		
3 centimeters (1.18 inches) wide	3.00	.53
5 centimeters (1.97 inches) wide	4.50	.80
9 centimeters (3.54 inches) wide	6.50	1.15
12 centimeters (4.72 inches) wide	9.50	1.68
Whalebones:	*Per kilo.*	*Per pound.*
Nos. 19 and 20	11.50	$1.01
No. 21	13.00	1.14
No. 22	13.50	1.19
No. 23	14.50	1.27
No. 24	18.00	1.58
No. 25	22.00	1.93
No. 28	27.00	2.36
No. 29	30.00	2.63
No. 30	33.00	2.89
Eyelets, white-metal:		
No. 1	16.00	1.41
No. 2	22.50	1.97
No. 3	16.50	1.45
Lacing tips	24.50	2.15
Embroidery silk:		
Superior	89.00	7.79
Fancy	64.50	5.65
Meteor	27.50	2.41
Extra sewing	80.00	7.00
Fancy sewing	74.00	6.48
Springs:	*Per gross.*	*Per gross.*
Leather-covered—		
No. 110	68.00– 80.00	$13.12–$15.44
No. 117	72.00– 85.00	13.90– 16.41
No. 120	76.00– 89.00	14.67– 17.18
No. 127	52.25– 65.75	10.08– 12.69
Taffeta-covered—		
No. 146	55.00– 68.00	10.62– 13.12
No. 152	59.00– 73.00	11.39– 14.09
No. 186	46.25– 59.00	8.93– 11.39
No. 195	28.50– 37.50	5.50– 7.24
Clasp, superior quality (six fasteners):		
No. 92—		
20 to 36 centimeters (7.87 to 14.17 inches)	94.00	18.14
37 to 40 centimeters (14.57 to 15.75 inches)	98.00	18.91
No. 50—		
20 to 36 centimeters (7.87 to 14.17 inches)	111.00	21.42
37 to 40 centimeters (14.57 to 15.75 inches)	115.00	22.20
Poignard fasteners:		
Nickel—		
No. 1	2.00	.39
No. 2	2.10	.41
No. 3	2.25	.43
No. 4	15.50	2.99
No. 5	16.50	3.18
Copper—		
No. 1	14.00	2.70
No. 2	15.50	2.99
No. 3	18.50	3.57
No. 4	21.50	4.15
Nickel, Louis XV	11.50	2.22

CORSET COVERS AND BRASSIERES.

Since the fashion of wearing corsets highly adorned with ribbons and laces has been abolished, the use of corset covers in Brazil has become general. Brassieres, however, are worn only by women of the well-to-do and wealthy classes. Corset covers and brassieres are sold

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both ready-made and to measure. Most of the corset covers were imported from France, Germany, England, and Italy. They are generally made of lace-trimmed cotton tulle, muslin, batiste, nainsook trimmed with imitation Valenciennes lace, and plain cotton cloth with embroideries and insertions; also of jaconade and percale batiste trimmed with imitation lace. These articles ready-made sell at retail at $0.38 to $2.16. Similar articles imported from France vary from 2.95 to 5.75 francs ($0.57 to $1.11), factory price in France. Germany formerly exported considerable quantities of these ready-made articles, which were sold to the importing houses at 14 marks ($3.33) to 26 marks ($6.19) per dozen. Articles of German origin, however, were considerably inferior in quality and coarser than those imported from other countries. The foregoing remarks refer principally to the goods used by the middle classes. Corset covers of fine lingerie were imported in considerable quantities from Belgium, especially those that were handmade.

Some of the principal houses that exported these articles to Brazil were the following: A. Delcourt, of Brussels, corset covers, made of fine batiste or linon, trimmed with fine thread lace and hand embroideries, at 9 to 15 francs ($1.74 to $2.90), which were resold in Rio at $2.40 to $4.08; L. Crick & Soeurs, Brussels, embroidered corset covers, trimmed with lace, imitation Bruges and Malines, at 15 francs ($2.90) up; Guillaume Dieltieno, of Antwerp, corset covers in batiste, trimmed with fine Venetian, Valenciennes, and Bruges lace, at 10 to 20 francs ($1.93 to $3.86).

Brassieres are generally made to order by the corset makers in Brazil. The following are some of the types most worn: Cambric, trimmed with imitation Valenciennes lace, mother-of-pearl buttons, sold at $4.08; fine batiste, openwork, trimmed with thread lace, $6 up; strong cotton lace (guipure), $8.40 up; tulle, white and cream, trimmed with silk or satin ribbons, $1.92 to $7.20. All these brassieres are laced in the back and closed in the front, with pearl buttons. No whalebone is used.

Brassieres are also imported, especially from France and England. The most salable types are the following: Irish lace, suspended from the shoulder by satin ribbons, 19 francs ($3.67) up; Cluny, English embroidery, 15 francs ($2.90) up, sold in Rio at $4.32; tulle or silk tricotine, rose color or white, 12 francs ($2.32) up.

PETTICOATS AND SEPARATE SKIRTS.

Since shirt waists are little worn in Brazil there is practically no demand for separate skirts. The complete costume is almost invariably used, as on the few days when the weather requires a medium-weight skirt of cheviot or worsted it is cold enough to necessitate the wearing of a coat or jacket of the same material. The cold days are almost always accompanied by heavy rains, so that protection from the wet is as much of an object as warmth. The materials employed for costumes have already been considered.

The clothing establishments have little trade in petticoats, as most women buy the materials at the stores and either make them up at home or have them made up for them by private seamstresses. Most Brazilian families are large, and those of the better class employ many household servants. It is rare not to find among them an expert seamstress who cuts and makes the lingerie underwear, petti-

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coats, children's clothes, and even the light summer frocks. The well-to-do or wealthy class use petticoats of fine lawn or muslin, mostly cotton, occasionally linen or silk. Silk petticoats, however, are not common, as the fabric deteriorates quickly in the Brazilian climate. Only limited stocks of ready-made petticoats of good quality are carried by the clothing stores to satisfy occasional demand. As there is no factory production the stores have these goods made up in their own workrooms or by outside seamstresses. There are practically no imports, except special orders for trousseaux, etc. The middle class wear homemade petticoats of coarser materials, generally domestic cotton goods. The working classes and the lower classes in the interior of the country wear no petticoats.

VEILINGS—HOSIERY AND GARTERS.

Veils are largely worn by the women of the wealthy and well-to-do classes in the large cities. The middle and lower classes do not wear them, except for mourning. There is no factory production; all the ready-made veils or materials for veiling are imported, principally from France and England. The fabrics used and the colors and styles of the veils follow closely the prevailing European fashion, France as a rule being looked upon as the arbiter in these matters. As in all Latin countries mourning is strictly observed, and black clothes are worn for deceased relatives even if the connection is somewhat distant. There is always, therefore, a large demand for mourning veiling, and heavy black crêpe is the usual material. In general French styles in the matter of mourning are closely followed.

Hosiery has been fully covered in the section treating of men's wearing apparel. It is well to emphasize, however, that there is in the large cities a good demand for the better grades. The retail prices that the public is willing to pay show a large margin of profit over the laid-down cost of the goods. American stockings are well liked for their fit and comfortable feeling. The only serious criticism concerns their wearing qualities. With proper attention to the methods of bringing their goods to the ultimate buyer the American manufacturer could afford to place on the market better-quality goods that could be sold at the same retail prices and still leave a reasonable margin of profit.

The styles of garters worn in Brazil do not differ from those used in the United States. The form of hose supporter most popular with the better class is that attached to the corset, consisting simply of elastic web with buckle for fastening to the stocking, that is to say, the suspender type. The webbing is generally sewn to the corset. The materials are imported and assembled in Brazil. Plain round garters are worn by the lower classes, and are either sewn to make a continuous band or fitted with simple metallic clasps.

CHILDREN'S WEAR.

The trade in ready-made apparel for children's wear in Brazil is confined entirely to the large cities, where all the clothing establishments display limited lines, mostly for children of 3 to 8 years of age. The quality sold is designed to meet the demands of the middle-class buyers; the children of the poor classes wear homemade suits, and those of the wealthier class suits made by the family

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seamstresses, private dressmakers, and tailors. The styles shown for both boys and girls follow closely the prevailing French fashions; the materials vary according to the locality and the season of the year. In the northern part of Brazil cotton and linen sailor suits, or trousers and blouse, for boys can be worn all the year round. Such suits are retailed at $1.20 to $8.40, depending on the quality and finish. For girls the fabrics are light washable materials, the range of prices being about the same as in materials for boys. In the southern cities, such as Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, woolen materials are employed in the cool season. For small children knitted jersey suits, generally red, are in good demand. These are made in the Brazilian knitting mills that also manufacture hosiery and underwear. Blue-flannel sailor suits for boys are popular and cost from $4.80 to $9.60. All these suits and dresses are made in the workrooms of the clothing establishments or on special order by outside dressmakers and tailors. There is practically no factory production. For home wear long calico tires covering the entire dress, made at home, are universally used.

There is no trade of importance in underwear for children, home-made shirts of cotton being generally used. Some of the stores carry very small stocks of knitted undershirts of cotton or wool, mostly of domestic manufacture, but the demand is extremely limited.

Short socks are worn by both young boys and girls. The most salable are the cheaper grades made by the domestic factories. Better grades for children of the wealthier class can be sold only to a limited extent.

GLOVES.

Although the use of gloves is not general in Brazil, the trade in this article is of considerable interest, especially in the large cities. In these cities women of good society are accustomed never to go out unless well-gloved, as it is necessary to protect the hands from the burning sun not only for the sake of appearance but also for comfort. Among men, however, of the same rank of society gloves are little used except for ceremonious occasions.

Women's gloves are generally of thread or of fine leather or kid, the last being always used when it is necessary to be well dressed. The thread gloves are white or of colors suited to the dress, the tones generally being light or neutral. In the length of the gloves and the system of fastening the Paris fashion of the moment prevails.

Although the glove industry in Brazil is not well developed, it is fairly prosperous. Rio de Janeiro has three factories, employing about 50 operatives. For leather gloves France exports the greater part of the raw material, consisting generally of lambskins or kid skins, known in Brazil under the name of "pellicule." The first kind is used for the manufacture of stronger and finer gloves than the second. The gloves made in Rio de Janeiro and commonly sold as dogskin, buckskin, and chamois are nearly always made of goatskins. The finish of the skins imported from France for the manufacture of gloves is usually "glacé," castor, and suede, all of these qualities being made of lambskins. The sizes of the gloves are stated as in Europe, those for men, women, and children being classified in four series as to the length and five series as to the width. At present the prevailing fashion in fastenings calls for pressure

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snaps, mother-of-pearl buttons, and buttons covered with leather. The gloves are machine-sewn, twist silk with whipstitch being generally used.

Besides leather gloves, the local factories manufacture cloth gloves, which are of two classes, namely, those cut from the piece and woven gloves. The textiles generally used are silk, cashmere, or wool tricots or cashmere and wool mixed tricots, which are obtained principally from the city of Nimes and from Germany.

The following table shows the prices of different kinds of gloves of Brazilian and French make. For the French gloves factory prices are given.

Kinds of gloves.	Prices.	Kind of gloves.	Prices.
Women's gloves:		Women's gloves—Continued.	
Domestic production—		French—Continued.	
Lisle-thread, 3 to 4 buttons	$0.84–$1.44	Suede—Continued.	
Lisle-thread, 12 to 18 buttons	1.10– 1.92	18-button	$2.46
Silk-thread, 3-button	1.01– 1.68	20-button	2.65
White kid, 3-button	1.20	24-button	3.04
White kid, 12-button	2.88	Suede, champagne color	$0.58– .97
Buckskin, 3-button	.84	Plain linen-thread	.38
Llama skin, washable, 3-button	1.87	Silk-satin	.47
Suede, 3-button	.84– 1.20	Silk	.95
Deerskin, 2-button	1.97	Men's gloves, French:	
French—		Fine kid	.58– .97
Glazed kid—		Suede	.58– 1.16
3-button	1.33	Linen-thread	.39– .77
8-button	1.69	Children's gloves:	
12-button	2.07	Domestic production, lisle-thread—	
16-button	2.46	3 to 7 years	.96
18-button	2.65	8 to 14 years	1.08
20-button	2.85	French—	
24-button	3.23	Kid, 2-button	.39– .58
Suede—		Linen-thread	.19– .29
3-button	1.33	Linen-thread, long	.29– .56
8-button	1.50	Mitts (domestic production):	
12-button	1.88	Imitation lace, 24 to 30 centimeters (9.45 to 11.81 inches) long	.96– 1.56
16-button	2.27	Lisle-thread, 24 centimeters long	1.08

BATHING COSTUMES.

The market for bathing costumes in Brazil is of no great importance, as it is only at the beaches in Rio de Janeiro and Santos that there is any public bathing by people who would be likely to wear costumes that might be of interest to foreign exporters. To satisfy this slight demand, the clothing establishments of Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, and Santos carry small stocks of bathing suits, which are received principally from the United States and from England and follow in general the fashions in those countries. They are almost invariably of wool or cotton, in navy blue. The usual woven shirt and trunks are worn by the men. Most of these suits are manufactured in the country. The costume for women generally consists of two pieces—bloomers reaching to the knee and closed at the waist by a twisted cotton cord, and blouse or jacket reaching nearly to the knees, closed by three or four buttons, and confined at the waist by a belt of cotton cord. One-piece suits for women are not worn in Brazil.

The following are the prevailing prices for imported suits: Woolen serge, trimmed with white cotton cording, $7.68 to $9.12; woolen and cotton serge, $4.68 to $5.64; men's knitted woolen suits, $6.24 to $11.52. The prices of Brazilian goods are as follows: Men's knitted bathing trunks, $11.52 to $13.20 per dozen; men's knitted

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bathing shirt, $11.52, $13.20, and $16.80 per dozen; oilcloth bathing cap, $0.72; rubber bathing cap, $0.36; cotton-flannel bathrobe, in one piece, $4.80 to $6.72.

COMMERCIAL PRACTICES IN BRAZIL.

In treating of the different branches of the wearing-apparel trade in Brazil it has been necessary at the same time to give a general idea of how that trade is conducted. It is evident that at the present time, as far as importation is concerned, with the exception of a few specific articles not made in the country or superior in style or quality to those of Brazilian production, the trade in materials and fittings is of much greater importance than that in completely manufactured goods. The importing is done by the large wholesale importing houses, which act as intermediaries between the foreign and local manufacturer and the retailer in the smaller cities and the interior cities. These large houses are true depots; the goods are carried in bulk and are not burdened by the expense of elaborate show cases and other means of display but are sold from sample cards or type samples. Their purchases from abroad are generally made on the basis of 90-day sight drafts and their resales in the country are usually on 30 or 60 days' time. For this class of business considerable capital is required by the importing houses, as honest clients who may be somewhat backward in their payments are frequently carried until their temporary embarrassment is relieved. The retailers of the cities and of the interior consume in this way probably four-fifths of all the merchandise imported; the remainder is taken by the large department stores or by clothing establishments that enjoy sufficient trade to warrant direct importation. The terms on which the local textile mills sell to the local manufacturers and on which the local manufacturers of special articles sell to the retailers have already been mentioned. It is from these retailers that the people in general, the laborers, employees, and families of the middle class supply their requirements either of ready-made articles or of materials to be made up at home. The Brazilian in general buys only for daily needs.

The retail clothing houses resort liberally to publicity through placards in the street cars and railway stations and advertisements in the daily papers and illustrated weekly magazines. Bargain sales are frequently announced, but the special prices would seem anything but special to the American public.

Trade in wearing-apparel specialties is the result of offers rather than of demand. If, therefore, American manufacturers expect to participate in this trade they must actively seek it. The various methods of soliciting foreign trade are generally classified as follows: Correspondence, with catalogues, samples, etc.; export commission houses located in New York and other shipping centers; native agencies handling many other lines; traveling salesmen; branch houses; or native agencies manned by Americans or natives handling one line only. The choice of these methods must depend on the character of the goods to be sold and the volume of business to be done.

The correspondence method for this line of business may be rejected without much discussion, especially in cases where it is necessary to establish first connections. The foreign buyer will not place much confidence in the statements of manufacturers entirely unknown

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to him, as to the quality, style, and finish of their respective articles, nor can he always rely on the illustrations and descriptions of catalogues to represent the goods. He naturally wishes to see the goods before placing his orders. It is furthermore obvious that the indiscriminate sending out of samples to prospective customers would entail much expense without any guaranty of compensating business. On the other hand, French houses which have already established trade relations and whose goods have become well known have been able to do considerable business by means of illustrated prospectuses and catalogues printed in the Portuguese or the French language. These albums, with hundreds of engravings, indicate the class and quality of the materials used, the cost in Paris, the style of package, and the manner of shipping, and orders may be given by the simple citation of a reference number. Well-known Parisian houses, such as Le Printemps, Le Louvre, Le Bon Marché, and Les Galeries Lafayettes, have been able to do much business by this method. In 1913 France alone sent out 47 per cent of all the parcel-post packages that entered Brazil, and most of these contained "articles de mode." Before this method can be followed with success, however, relations must be established and the confidence of the buyer gained.

In wearing apparel, perhaps more than in any other line of business, goods must be shown to be sold. If the persuasive powers of a direct personal representative can be added to the effect of the examination of the samples, the chances of success are enormously enhanced. The best representative for introductory work is undoubtedly a special traveling agent who is familiar with the products that he is endeavoring to sell and with the factory methods, and who is capable not only of demonstrating the goods but of deciding at once whether any modifications required by local styles or conditions can be made. Each manufacturer must determine for himself whether the prospective business in his line will warrant the expense of this class of representation. His goods may be of such a nature that although the sales resulting immediately from a traveler's efforts might not compensate the expense, the repeat business that would follow without the necessity of a salesman's visit would be cumulative and lucrative.

Traveling in South America is rather expensive, and can not be estimated to cost less than $10 a day, exclusive of salary. Traveling salesmen are subject to taxes or licenses in all the principal cities of Brazil except Rio de Janeiro, unless they are represented in those cities by fixed agents who pay annual taxes. No fees are charged in the States of Minas Geraes, São Paulo, and Ceara. The cost of the licenses varies in different cities, and the amounts are changed from time to time. The following are the rates payable at present:

States and cities.	Amount.		States and cities.	Amount.	
	Milreis.			*Milreis.*	
Rio de Janeiro:			Matto Grosso (for the State).	[a] 600–1,000	[a] $144–240
Nictheroy	100	$24	Corumba	150	36
Nova Friburgo	100–300	24–72	São Luiz	150	36
Petropolis	300	72	Para (for the State)	[b] 300	162
Espirito Santo: Victoria	500	120	Para	345	82.80
Goyaz (for the State)	200	48	Amazonas (for the State)	60	14.40
			Manaos	500	120
			Bahia (for the State)	100	24

[a] According to the number of houses represented. [b] Gold; the conversion rate is 54 cents.

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The licenses are for the current year and are payable in full, no matter on what date they may be taken out.

Fixed agents pay a uniform tax, which varies according to the class of business transacted and may run from 200 to 1,000 milreis ($48 to $240). Samples of value must pay the customs duties levied on the class of merchandise to which they belong. They can, however, be entered in bond if certain regulations regarding consular invoices and declarations are strictly followed.

A traveling salesman, or direct representative of the manufacturer, who visits the country to study the field and to open relations through initial sales but does not expect to make frequent periodical trips, should appoint local sales agents, who will in the future be kept well supplied with samples, informed of changes of materials, designs, and styles, and posted regarding prices. In all the large cities there are many such agents. It is their function to visit the trade regularly and take orders from the importing houses for the lines that they represent. As a rule, they do not assume the financial risk of the transactions, the goods being invoiced direct by the manufacturer to the importer or by the commission house to the importer. The agent's compensation is a fixed commission on the value of the business in his district, payable by the manufacturer.

The sending by a manufacturer of his own traveling salesman or the appointing of his own resident sales agent does not necessarily imply that he must do a direct business. If he is unable or disinclined to grant the necessary credit and take the corresponding risk, his salesmen may solicit orders from the importers with the understanding that the importer shall designate the American commission house with which he is accustomed to work and that the orders shall be approved by and executed through that commission house, subject to the usual terms of credit and commission between the importer and the commission merchants. The American commission house then pays the manufacturer cash for his goods and invoices them to the client at the manufacturer's price plus his usual commission, shipping expenses, and interest, granting the credit that has previously been agreed upon. This is a satisfactory method of handling the business, which assigns to the manufacturer and the commission merchant their proper functions and permits them to work in harmony.

Even if a manufacturer is unable to send out his own personal representative to do the preliminary work of establishing relations, it is still possible for him to get in touch with reliable local agents who will undertake the introductory work and act as salesmen on a commission basis. These agents should be selected with care and appointed only after due evidence has been obtained regarding their reliability and knowledge of the class of trade they are expected to solicit. They should then be well supplied with samples and kept thoroughly posted as to prices and changes of conditions. Unless a manufacturer is well acquainted with the market and his ultimate clients through his own representative or has full confidence in the discretion and reliability of his local agent, it is not advisable for him to undertake direct transactions; it is preferable that the business obtained by his agents be handled through the export commission houses in the manner indicated above.

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It may be that the manufacturer thinks he is not justified in assuming the expense of sending his own traveling salesman to Brazil and is unable by other means to get in touch with a local agent in whom he can repose the necessary confidence. The course of working entirely through the export commission houses is open to him. He must remember, however, that introductory work requires time, patience, and a great amount of energy. The commission houses do not buy goods on their own account to resell, but buy to fill orders received from their foreign clients or taken by their branch houses or agencies abroad. These branch houses or agencies are constantly visiting the trade, making offers of merchandise, and soliciting orders. The compensation of the commission houses consists only of a commission ranging from 2½ to 5 per cent, according to the character of the merchandise or volume of the business received from the buyer. Obviously the energy of the foreign representative of the commission house will be expended in soliciting orders for lines of merchandise that are ordered in large quantities. Accordingly the manufacturer would do well to select the commission house that can best handle his particular line in the market he wishes to reach, satisfy himself that the commission house has the right kind of representatives in that market, and make some special arrangements to compensate for the loss of time and the expenditure of effort necessary for an effective introductory campaign. Indiscriminate distribution of samples among commission houses in New York or the appointing of so-called manufacturers' export agents, who as a rule simply visit the offices of the New York commission merchants, can not produce much result. Brazilian business must originate and be developed in Brazil itself and must be solicited on the ground. Obviously some one must bear the expense of that solicitation.

It would not appear advisable to establish branch houses without thoroughly studying the ground with reference to the particular article to be offered for sale. Few individual lines of wearing apparel are imported in sufficiently large quantities to warrant this method. As has frequently been remarked, the great importation is of materials rather than of completely manufactured goods. The manufacture of woolen and of silk piece goods in the United States has greatly developed in the last few years, and European sources of supply are not available to the extent that they were formerly. It is worth while for manufacturers to consider whether the establishment of houses in Brazil to carry stocks from which the trade could be promptly supplied might not divert much of the business in these lines to the United States.

In the investigation of the wearing-apparel trade in Brazil a point that has been striking is the wide difference between cost and retail prices for articles of medium and better quality, both imported and domestic. First cost, expenses, and high duties do not justify the extremely high retail prices. The situation appears to be due to a lack of knowledge of values on the part of the buying public. It is believed that a field is offered in Brazil for the establishment of American department stores or American clothing and fancy-goods houses, which, if conducted along American lines, with attractive displays, liberal publicity, polite and efficient service, and prices calculated to

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show only a reasonable margin of profit, would effect a revolution in the wearing-apparel trade in Brazil, greatly promote the sale of American specialties, and prove an excellent investment of capital. Such stores would naturally be obliged to sell many articles manufactured in the country but would give a preference to American materials. They would also be able to import many American novelties which would find a market if offered to the public at reasonable prices. Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo are the cities that should be studied in this connection on account of their large population of the class with good buying power.

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APPENDIXES.

APPENDIX A.—SAMPLES.

In connection with the foregoing report, Commercial Attaché Downs submitted a large number of samples, selected as typical of the wearing apparel commonly worn in Brazil and therefore of value in showing the American manufacturer the kind of market that the country represents and the competition that he will have to meet. The samples may be seen at the New York office of the bureau, Room 734, Customhouse. The list of samples and the prices paid for them in Rio de Janeiro in 1917 are shown in the following table. Conversions were made at rates current at the times the different articles were purchased:

Sample No.	Names of articles.	Prices.	
		Milreis.	
1	Corset cover X.....each..	1$600	$0.433
2	Corset cover XX.....do....	1$500	.407
3	Corset cover No. 460.....do....	18$000	4.878
4	Corset cover No. 37.....do....	3$600	.976
5	Corset cover No. 27.....do....	2$400	.65
6	Corset cover No. 45.....do....	3$000	.813
7	Corset cover No. 22a.....do....	4$800	1.30
8	Corset cover No. 3.....do....	6$600	1.788
9	Corset cover No. 5038.....do....	19$000	5.149
10	Corset cover No. 5041.....do....	21$000	5.691
11	Women's drawers No. 8.....do....	7$200	1.951
12	Women's drawers No. 39.....do....	4$800	1.30
13	Women's drawers No. 29.....do....	5$500	1.491
14	Women's drawers No. 5.....do....	9$600	2.601
15	Women's drawers No. 18.....do....	14$400	3.902
16	Women's drawers No. 3c.....do....	54$000	14.634
17	Women's drawers No. 1129.....do....	19$000	5.149
18	Women's drawers No. 112.....do....	15$000	4.065
19	Women's combination No. 46.....do....	26$000	7.046
20	Women's petticoat (silk).....do....	72$000	19.512
21	Women's petticoat No. 4.....do....	21$600	5.853
22	Women's petticoat No. 1a.....do....	8$400	2.276
23	Women's petticoat No. 910.....do....	18$000	4.878
24	Women's petticoat.....do....	7$800	2.114
25	Women's peignoir No. 54.....do....	42$000	11.382
26	Women's peignoir No. 462.....do....	66$000	17.886
27	Women's matinée No. 42.....do....	21$600	5.854
28	Women's matinée No. 44.....do....	24$000	6.504
29	Women's matinée No. 2500.....do....	36$000	9.756
30	Women's matinée No. 46.....do....	60$000	16.26
31	Women's matinée No. 46a.....do....	54$000	14.634
32	Women's sweater coat No. 7.....do....	65$000	17.615
33	Women's wool jacket No. 8.....do....	35$000	9.485
34	Women's nightgown No. 9.....do....	9$250	2.507
35	Women's nightgown No. 7.....do....	10$500	2.846
36	Women's nightgown No. 5.....do....	7$000	1.891
37	Women's nightgown No. 14.....do....	48$000	13.00
38	Women's nightgown No. 17a.....do....	75$000	20.325
39	Women's nightgown No. 22a.....do....	44$000	11.924
40	Women's chemise No. 1156.....do....	26$000	7.046
41	Women's chemise No. 0.....do....	3$000	.813
42	Women's chemise No. 9.....do....	5$400	1.463
43	Women's chemise No. 32.....do....	8$000	2.168
44	Women's chemise No. 33a.....do....	36$000	9.756
45	Women's chemise No. 28.....do....	33$600	9.214
46	Women's chemise No. 42.....do....	33$600	9.214
47	Handkerchief, linen, No. 121.....do....	2$900	.786
48	Handkerchief, linen, No. 26.....do....	2$700	.732
49	Handkerchief, cotton, No. 7.....do....	$900	.244

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Sample No.	Names of articles.	Prices.	
		Milreis.	
50	Handkerchief, cotton, No. 115	each	$600	$0.163
51	Handkerchief, cotton, No. 19a	do	1$200	.326
52	Handkerchief, cotton, No. 18a	do	$900	.244
53	Handkerchief, linen, No. 53	do	3$300	.894
54	Handkerchief, linen, No. 9	do	2$400	.651
55	Women's handkerchief, linen, No. 31	do	25$000	6.775
56	Corset No. 773	do	10$000	2.353
57	Corset No. 781	do	5$000	1.177
58	Corset No. 701c	do	7$700	1.812
59	Corset No. 777	do	14$700	3.459
60	Corset No. 22	do	80$000	18.824
61	Corset Louis XV	do	60$000	14.127
62	Corset No. 28	do	80$000	18.824
63	Corset belt No. 8	do	40$000	9.812
64	Corset belt No. 12	do	38$000	8.941
65	Corset belt	do	25$000	5.882
66	Corset belt No. 1	do	7$000	1.647
67	Men's short drawers	do	6$000	1.626
68	Men's short drawers	do	6$000	1.626
69	Men's wool athletic shirt	do	12$000	3.252
70	Men's wool athletic shirt	do	12$000	3.252
71	Men's undershirt of "crêpe de santé"	per dozen	85$000	23.035
72	Men's knit undershirt	do	80$000	21.680
73	Men's white starched-bosom shirt	do	130$000	35.230
74	Men's black cotton bathing pants	each	5$000	1.355
75	Men's knit undershirt	per dozen	15$000	4.065
76	Women's wool stockings	do	42$000	11.382
77	Women's wool stockings	do	48$000	13.00
78	Women's lisle-thread stockings	do	108$000	29.268
79	Women's cotton stockings	do	60$000	16.260
80	Women's cotton stockings	do	48$000	13.00
81	Men's wool socks	do	36$000	9.756
82	Men's wool socks	do	30$000	8.13
83	Men's lisle-thread socks	do	60$000	16.26
84	Men's lisle-thread socks	do	70$000	18.970
85	Men's lisle-thread socks	do	42$000	11.382
86	Men's negligee shirt No. 5	do	45$000	12.249
87	Men's negligee shirt No. 8	do	47$000	12.791
88	Men's negligee shirt No. 10	do	55$200	14.959
89	Men's negligee shirt No. 18	do	81$200	22.006
90	Men's negligee shirt No. 11	do	55$200	14.959
91	Men's negligee shirt No. 15	do	59$200	16.043
92	Men's negligee shirt No. 400	do	55$200	14.959
93	Men's negligee shirt No. 250	do	73$200	19.859
94	Pajamas R	each	7$000	1.891
95	Pajamas No. 100	do	9$000	2.439
96	Pajamas S	do	11$000	2.981
97	Pajamas O	do	9$000	2.439
98	Men's drawers D	per dozen	37$200	10.081
99	Men's drawers No. 44	do	43$200	11.707
100	Men's drawers Z	do	39$200	10.623
101	Men's drawers ZZ	do	45$200	12.249
102	Men's drawers B	do	49$200	13.479
103	Men's drawers A	do	55$200	14.959
104	Women's stockings No. 619	per pair	8$000	2.168
105	Women's stockings No. 750	do	13$000	3.523
106	Women's stockings No. 680	do	15$000	4.065
107	Women's stockings No. 682	do	16$000	4.336
108	Women's stockings No. 670	do	11$000	2.981
109	Women's stockings No. 571	do	13$500	3.658
110	Women's stockings No. 700	do	12$000	3.252
111	Women's stockings No. 600	do	9$000	2.439
112	Women's stockings No. 602	do	7$600	2.059
113	Women's stockings No. 598	do	7$600	2.059
114	Men's socks No. 580	do	9$600	2.602
115	Men's socks No. 550	do	9$800	2.656
116	Men's socks No. 545	do	12$000	3.252
117	Men's socks No. 541	do	9$800	2.656
118	Men's socks No. 525	do	5$000	1.355
119	Men's socks No. 560	do	9$600	2.602
120	Men's socks No. 525R	do	4$800	1.301
121	Boys' stockings No. 365	do	6$300	1.707
122	Girls' stockings No. 538	do	9$000	2.439
123	Girls' stockings No. 537	do	9$000	2.439
124	Girls' stockings No. 539	do	10$800	2.926
125	Men's knit undershirt No. 555	each	18$000	4.878
126	Men's knit undershirt No. 777	do	21$000	5.691
127	Men's trunks No. 1	do	6$000	1.626
128	Men's rowing shirt No. 2	do	12$000	3.252
129	Men's football shirt No. 3	do	8$000	2.168
130	Men's football trunks No. 4	do	8$000	2.168

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Sample No.	Names of articles.	Prices.	
		Milreis.	
131	Men's football trunks No. 5.....per dozen..	48$000	$13.008
	Men's football trunks No. 5.....each..	6$000	1.626
132	Men's football trunks No. 6.....per dozen..	60$000	16.260
	Men's football trunks No. 6.....each..	7$000	1.897
133	Men's football stockings No. 7.....per pair..	8$000	2.168
134	Men's football stockings No. 8.....do....	6$000	1.626
135	Men's football stockings No. 9.....do....	6$000	1.626
136	Men's football knee guards No. 10.....do....	14$000	3.794
137	Men's sport shirt No. 11.....each..	10$000	2.710
138	Men's sport shirt No. 12.....do....	15$000	4.065
139	Men's raincoat No. 979.....do....	45$000	12.195
140	Men's raincoat No. 917.....do....	70$000	16.97
141	Men's raincoat No. 957.....do....	120$000	32.52
142	Men's necktie, crêpe de chine.....do....	10$000	2.71
143	Men's silk four-in-hand No. 6.....do....	4$500	1.219
144	Men's colored tie, patent spring.....do....	4$000	1.084
145	Men's colored tie, patent spring.....do....	4$000	1.084
146	Men's colored bow, patent spring.....do....	2$500	.677
147	Men's colored bow, patent spring.....do....	2$500	.677
148	Men's lavaliere tie.....do....	2$500	.677
149	Men's lavaliere tie.....do....	2$500	.677
150	Men's lavaliere tie.....do....	2$500	.677
151	Men's white dress bow.....do....	2$500	.677
152	Men's linen cuffs.....per pair..	2$400	.650
153	Men's linen cuffs.....do....	2$400	.650
154	Men's linen collar.....each..	1$400	.379
155	Men's linen collar.....do....	1$400	.379
156	Men's linen collar.....do....	1$400	.379
157	Men's linen collar.....do....	1$500	.406
158	Men's linen collar.....do....	1$500	.406
159	Men's soft cotton collar.....do....	1$000	.271
160	Men's soft linen collar.....do....	1$400	.379
161	Men's two-piece suit, wool.....do....	55$000	14.905
162	Men's two-piece suit, cotton.....do....	22$000	5.962
163	Men's two-piece suit, cotton.....do....	15$000	4.065
164	Men's cotton trousers.....do....	4$500	1.219

APPENDIX B.—TRADE LISTS.

There were submitted with the foregoing report the following trade lists, copies of which may be obtained from the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce or its district or cooperative offices: Manufacturers of men's clothing in Brazil, hosiery factories in Brazil, woolen-goods mills in Brazil, principal Belgian manufacturers exporting corsets to Brazil, principal French houses exporting corsets to Brazil, French exporters of corset materials and accessories to Brazil, and principal makers of corsets to measure in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo. Inquirers should refer to file No. 2626.

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BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 72

CONSUMPTION ESTIMATES

SHOWING PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND AMOUNTS AVAILABLE FOR CONSUMPTION OF VARIOUS ARTICLES IN THE UNITED STATES BY YEARS SPECIFIED

[FROM STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF THE UNITED STATES, 1917]

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CONSUMPTION ESTIMATES.

No. 1.—CORN PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES, 1867 TO 1917.

Year ended June 30—	Produced.[1]	Exports of domestic.[2]	Domestic retained for consumption.	Net imports.[3]	Total consumption, domestic and foreign.	Per cent domestic product exported
	Bushels.	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*Per cent.*
1867–70[4]	854,278,324	9,736,905	844,541,419	76,373	844,617,792	1.14
1871–80[4]	1,184,486,954	55,078,160	1,129,508,794	55,208	1,129,564,002	4.65
1881–90[4]	1,703,443,054	58,459,900	1,644,983,154	29,281	1,645,012,435	3.43
1891–5[4]	1,602,170,837	50,168,128	1,552,002,709	5,954	1,552,008,663	3.13
1896–1900[4]	2,068,062,054	176,470,359	1,891,591,695	4,008	1,891,595,703	8.53
1901[5]	2,105,102,516	181,405,473	1,923,697,043	5,353	1,923,702,396	8.62
1902[5]	1,522,519,891	28,028,688	1,494,491,203	17,456	1,494,508,659	1.84
1903[5]	2,523,648,312	76,639,261	2,447,009,051	40,775	2,447,049,826	3.04
1904[5]	2,244,176,925	58,222,061	2,185,954,864	11,898	2,185,966,762	2.59
1905[5]	2,467,480,934	90,293,483	2,377,187,451	15,676	2,377,203,127	3.66
1906[5]	2,707,993,540	119,893,833	2,588,099,707	10,429	2,588,100,136	4.43
1907[5]	2,927,416,091	86,368,228	2,841,047,863	10,184	2,841,058,047	2.95
1908[5]	2,592,320,000	55,063,860	2,537,256,140	19,370	2,537,275,510	2.12
1909[5]	2,668,651,000	37,665,040	2,630,985,960	228,275	2,631,214,235	1.41
1910[5]	2,772,376,000	38,128,498	2,734,247,502	118,120	2,734,365,622	1.38
1911[5]	2,886,260,000	65,614,522	2,820,645,478	52,569	2,820,698,047	2.27
1912[5]	2,531,488,000	41,797,291	2,489,690,709	53,488	2,489,744,197	1.65
1913[5]	3,124,746,000	50,780,143	3,073,965,857	865,254	3,074,831,111	1.63
1914[5]	2,446,988,000	10,725,819	2,436,262,181	12,290,498	2,448,552,679	.44
1915[5]	2,672,804,000	50,668,303	2,622,135,697	9,894,498	2,632,030,195	1.90
1916[5]	2,994,793,000	39,896,928	2,954,896,072	5,212,691	2,960,108,763	1.33
1917[5]	2,566,927,000	66,753,294	2,500,173,706	2,270,079	2,502,443,785	2.60

[1] The production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year, the figures being those of the United States Department of Agriculture.
[2] Including corn meal reduced to corn at rate of 4 bushels to barrel.
[3] The figures include for years prior to 1910 net imports of corn and imports of corn meal for consumption; for 1910 and subsequent years all figures represent imports for consumption. Small amounts of burnt or roasted corn in 1898, 1899, and 1900 are omitted.
[4] Average for the period.
[5] Data relate to United States as a whole. Production (if any) for noncontiguous territory is lacking.

No. 2.—WHEAT PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES, 1867 TO 1917.

Year ended June 30—	Produced.[1]	Exports of domestic.[2]	Domestic retained for consumption.	Imports.[3]	Exports of foreign.[3]	Total consumption, domestic and foreign.[3]	Per cent of domestic product exported.	Share of total exports in form of—	
								Wheat.	Wheat flour.
	Bushels.	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*P. ct.*	*P. ct.*	*P. ct.*
1867-70[4]	212,156,201	30,646,984	181,509,217	2,055,799	613,153	182,951,863	14.45	61.76	38.24
1871-80[4]	312,152,928	86,275,673	225,877,255	1,358,538	896,817	226,338,976	27.64	77.48	22.52
1881-90[4]	449,695,359	126,615,708	323,079,651	397,274	382,802	323,094,123	28.16	65.93	34.07
1891-95[4]	476,678,028	166,571,122	310,106,906	1,327,116	759,482	310,674,540	34.94	59.50	40.50
1896-00[4][5]	529,477,802	179,518,025	349,959,777	1,582,970	1,595,524	349,947,223	33.90	59.03	40.97
1901[5]	522,229,505	215,990,073	306,239,432	603,101	669,112	306,173,421	41.36	61.23	38.77
1902[5]	748,460,218	234,772,515	513,687,703	120,502	45,464	513,762,741	31.37	65.97	34.03
1903[5]	670,063,008	202,905,598	467,157,410	1,080,129	1,261,626	466,975,913	30.28	56.54	43.46
1904[5]	637,821,835	120,727,613	517,094,222	217,682	168,761	517,143,143	18.92	36.59	63.41
1905[5]	552,399,517	44,112,910	508,286,607	3,286,190	587,473	510,985,324	7.99	11.11	88.89
1906[5]	692,979,489	97,609,007	595,370,482	261,908	32,972	595,599,418	14.09	35.85	64.15
1907[5]	735,260,970	146,700,425	588,560,545	590,092	599,432	588,551,205	19.95	52.38	47.62
1908[5]	634,087,000	163,043,669	471,043,331	519,786	307,877	471,255,240	25.71	61.63	38.37
1909[5]	664,602,000	114,268,468	550,333,532	456,940	3,772	550,786,700	17.19	58.57	41.43
1910[5]	737,189,000	87,364,318	649,824,682	815,616	136,659	650,503,639	11.85	53.50	46.50
1911[5]	635,121,000	69,311,760	565,809,240	1,146,558	1,397	566,954,401	10.91	34.24	65.76
1912[5]	621,338,000	79,689,404	541,648,596	3,413,627	1,291	545,060,932	12.83	37.85	62.15
1913[5]	730,267,000	142,879,597	587,387,403	1,282,039	83,037	588,586,405	19.57	64.11	35.89
1914[5]	763,380,000	145,590,349	617,789,651	2,383,536	752,584	619,420,603	19.07	63.65	36.35
1915[5]	891,017,000	332,464,976	558,552,024	715,369	187,871	559,079,522	37.31	78.11	21.89
1916[5]	1,025,801,000	243,117,026	782,683,974	7,187,650	621,240	789,250,384	23.70	71.33	28.67
1917[5]	636,318,000	203,573,928	432,744,072	24,924,985	63,948	457,605,109	31.99	73.60	26.40

[1] The production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year, the figures being those of the United States Department of Agriculture.
[2] Including wheat flour reduced to wheat prior to 1880 at the rate of 5, and subsequently at the rate of 4½ bushels to the barrel.
[3] Includes wheat for seeding.
[4] Average for the period.
[5] Data relate to United States as a whole. Production (if any) for noncontiguous territory is lacking.

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No. 3.—SUGAR: PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION IN CON FOREIGN PRODUCTION,

[Sources: United States production—cane, in Louisiana, beginning with 1903–4, from Willett & Gray except figures of the Department of Agriculture for 1898 and 1902 and later years. World's production—to 1905, includes, with respect to British India, exports only, and subsequently the product of that 40,000,000 hundredweight of 112 pounds each.]

Year ended June 30—	Production in continental U. S.[1]			Brought from islands now designated as noncontiguous territories of U. S.[2]			
	Cane.	Beet.	Total.	From Porto Rico.	From Hawaii.	From Philippine Islands.[3]	Total.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1865.....	11,200,000	896,000	12,096,000	51,694,718	2,434,644	15,877,773	70,007,135
1866.....	20,680,000	896,000	21,576,000	106,360,235	16,062,039	29,208,963	151,631,237
1867.....	50,400,000	896,000	51,296,000	91,918,924	15,207,914	22,251,699	129,378,537
1868.....	51,520,000	896,000	52,416,000	105,845,851	18,271,258	22,719,444	146,836,553
1869.....	100,801,225	896,000	101,697,225	111,615,991	16,315,491	35,544,844	163,476,326
1870.....	87,043,000	896,000	87,929,000	130,712,197	14,016,181	59,367,828	204,096,206
1871.....	178,304,592	896,000	179,200,592	149,219,683	15,018,469	50,950,793	215,188,945
1872.....	156,352,125	896,000	157,248,125	167,582,316	15,360,184	87,339,414	270,281,914
1873.....	134,832,493	1,120,000	135,952,493	122,657,581	15,805,370	70,142,113	208,605,064
1874.....	108,640,119	1,568,000	110,208,119	98,871,248	13,582,874	77,271,492	189,725,614
1875.....	142,240,691	224,000	142,464,691	114,583,612	17,909,360	119,309,951	251,802,923
1876.....	172,480,070	224,000	172,704,070	70,289,275	20,978,374	110,455,708	201,723,357
1877.....	199,360,570	224,000	199,584,570	62,784,202	32,785,463	161,089,740	256,659,405
1878.....	159,041,941	224,000	159,265,941	73,978,123	30,434,916	140,044,046	244,457,085
1879.....	250,880,753	448,000	251,328,753	84,706,761	41,696,674	112,450,478	238,853,913
1880.....	178,872,000	2,688,000	181,560,000	84,070,596	61,556,708	132,859,769	278,487,073
1881.....	285,302,899	1,120,000	286,422,899	50,533,363	76,907,207	190,494,795	317,935,365
1882.....	171,074,950	1,120,000	172,194,950	78,788,027	106,181,858	163,658,156	348,628,041
1883.....	318,746,258	1,120,000	319,866,258	83,940,670	114,132,670	188,589,026	386,662,366
1884.....	302,944,230	1,198,400	304,142,630	138,382,724	125,158,797	295,235,883	558,777,404
1885.....	225,962,963	2,134,720	228,097,683	159,799,898	169,652,603	179,503,732	508,956,233
1886.....	302,754,486	1,344,000	304,098,486	93,002,688	191,623,175	292,082,214	576,708,077
1887.....	191,282,272	1,792,000	193,074,272	131,443,622	218,290,835	246,168,994	595,903,451
1888.....	375,904,197	571,200	376,475,397	115,654,059	228,540,513	274,809,392	619,003,964
1889.....	344,756,221	4,168,640	348,924,861	81,340,747	243,324,683	186,151,600	510,817,030
1890.....	301,284,395	4,934,720	306,219,115	76,926,934	224,457,011	259,775,540	561,159,485
1891.....	497,169,856	7,748,160	504,918,016	80,013,652	312,255,016	92,610,118	484,878,786
1892.....	370,579,307	11,997,440	382,576,747	80,474,547	262,612,405	97,285,662	440,372,614
1893.....	498,455,926	26,920,320	525,376,246	99,617,911	289,553,529	122,413,780	511,585,220
1894.....	610,825,618	44,688,000	655,513,618	75,546,030	326,574,584	124,052,343	526,172,957
1895.....	729,392,561	45,006,080	774,398,641	56,352,954	274,385,228	68,770,492	399,508,674
1896.....	543,633,726	65,452,800	609,086,526	81,582,810	352,175,269	145,075,344	578,833,423
1897.....	644,175,323	84,080,640	728,255,963	86,607,317	431,217,116	72,463,577	590,288,010
1898.....	708,251,878	90,491,670	798,743,548	98,452,420	499,776,895	29,489,600	627,718,915
1899.....	568,789,795	72,735,040	641,524,835	107,208,014	462,423,600	51,625,280	621,256,894
1900.....	322,549,011	163,458,075	486,007,086	72,558,181	504,713,105	49,490,542	626,761,828
1901.....	623,774,123	172,164,160	795,938,283	137,201,828	690,877,934	4,693,333	832,773,095
1902.....	728,650,448	369,211,733	1,097,862,181	183,817,049	720,553,357	11,424,000	915,794,406
1903.....	745,805,875	436,811,685	1,182,617,560	226,143,508	774,825,420	18,773,333	1,019,742,261
1904.....	525,952,000	481,209,087	1,007,161,087	259,231,607	736,492,092	61,570,614	1,057,294,313
1905.....	784,000,000	484,226,430	1,268,226,430	271,319,993	832,721,387	77,997,424	1,182,038,804
1906.....	766,080,000	625,841,228	1,391,921,228	410,544,618	746,602,637	69,373,602	1,226,520,857
1907.....	544,320,000	967,224,000	1,511,544,000	408,149,992	821,014,811	25,164,756	1,254,329,559
1908.....	788,480,000	927,256,430	1,715,736,430	469,205,082	1,077,570,637	38,408,000	1,585,183,719
1909.....	828,800,000	851,768,000	1,680,568,000	488,452,733	1,022,863,928	83,648,000	1,594,964,661
1910.....	750,400,000	1,024,938,000	1,775,338,000	569,039,881	1,110,594,466	175,869,739	1,855,504,086
1911.....	710,080,000	1,020,344,000	1,730,424,000	645,834,403	1,011,215,858	230,351,485	1,887,401,746
1912.....	721,748,160	1,199,000,000	1,920,748,160	734,289,872	1,205,465,510	435,570,122	2,375,325,504
1913.....	325,147,200	1,385,112,000	1,710,259,200	765,420,310	1,085,362,344	203,160,972	2,053,943,626
1914.....	601,074,880	1,466,802,000	2,067,876,880	641,252,527	1,114,750,702	116,749,211	1,872,752,440
1915.....	493,239,040	1,444,108,000	1,937,347,040	588,922,493	1,280,863,812	326,842,296	2,196,628,601
1916[4].....	277,240,320	1,748,440,000	2,025,680,320	849,763,491	1,137,159,828	217,190,825	2,204,114,144
1917[4].....	621,799,360	1,641,314,000	2,263,113,360	977,377,996	1,162,605,056	267,891,954	2,407,875,006

[1] Production is of the season preceding the fiscal year.
[2] Exclusive of small amounts coming through Alaska, and in the fiscal year 1917 of sugar which came from the Virgin Islands, 26,406,776 pounds, all returned as dutiable
[3] From 1869 to 1885, "All other Spanish possessions."

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TINENTAL UNITED STATES AND RELATION OF CONSUMPTION TO THE HOME AND 1865 TO 1917.

for other years from A. Bouchereau, except census figures for census years. Beet, from Willett & Gray, 1865 to 1897, inclusive, A. Bouchereau, New Orleans; subsequent years, Willett & Gray, which, from 1898 country. The product of British India, according to the British Statistical Abstract, averages about

Total imports exclusive of noncontiguous territory.	Exported from U.S.[4]	Retained for consumption in U.S. (continental).[5]	Percentage of consumption supplied by—			Per capita consumption in U.S.[5]	World's production of sugar.[1]		Per cent of world's product consumed in U.S.	Year ended June 30—
			Domestic.	Noncontig's ter'y	Foreign countries.		Total.	Per cent beet.		
Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*				*Lbs.*	*Pounds.*			
581,929,359	32,635,280	631,397,214	1.9	11.1	87.0	18.17	4,412,800,000	27.2	14.3	...1865
848,423,787	13,027,910	1,008,603,114	2.2	15.0	82.8	28.45	4,578,560,000	30.7	22.0	...1866
719,675,469	20,340,676	880,009,330	5.8	14.7	79.5	24.30	5,048,960,000	34.0	17.4	...1867
974,352,862	18,329,940	1,155,275,475	4.5	12.7	82.8	31.24	4,719,680,000	34.7	24.5	...1868
1,084,357,104	20,995,911	1,328,534,744	7.7	12.3	80.0	35.19	5,326,720,000	31.2	24.9	...1869
992,677,363	22,760,904	1,261,941,665	7.1	16.0	76.9	32.73	5,411,840,000	34.4	23.3	...1870
1,062,284,708	14,203,714	1,442,470,531	12.4	14.9	72.7	36.47	5,920,320,000	34.1	24.4	...1871
1,238,903,760	16,598,822	1,649,834,977	9.5	16.4	74.1	40.64	5,866,560,000	39.0	28.1	...1872
1,359,699,528	34,010,384	1,670,246,701	8.3	12.3	79.4	40.08	6,726,720,000	40.3	24.8	...1873
1,511,572,255	29,442,750	1,782,063,238	6.2	10.6	83.2	41.64	7,006,720,000	41.2	25.4	...1874
1,545,707,067	35,352,785	1,904,621,896	7.5	13.2	79.3	43.33	6,565,440,000	41.6	29.0	...1875
1,292,254,115	67,730,198	1,598,951,344	10.8	12.6	76.6	35.42	6,569,920,000	45.8	24.3	...1876
1,397,897,426	42,872,675	1,811,268,726	11.0	14.2	74.8	39.07	6,088,320,000	38.5	29.8	...1877
1,292,004,849	50,123,065	1,645,604,810	9.7	14.8	75.5	34.59	7,266,560,000	43.7	22.7	...1878
1,595,511,923	82,741,564	2,002,953,025	12.6	11.9	75.5	40.99	8,021,440,000	43.9	25.0	...1879
1,550,814,611	40,640,206	1,970,221,478	9.2	13.9	75.6	39.46	7,288,960,000	43.1	27.1	...1880
1,628,809,840	31,980,791	2,201,187,313	13.0	14.4	72.6	42.89	8,196,160,000	47.8	26.9	...1881
1,641,524,333	19,443,075	2,142,904,249	8.0	16.3	75.7	40.82	8,606,080,000	46.4	24.9	...1882
1,751,005,299	30,552,136	2,426,981,787	13.2	15.9	70.9	45.20	9,528,960,000	50.5	25.5	...1883
2,197,639,492	85,532,916	2,975,026,610	10.2	18.8	71.0	54.18	10,492,160,000	50.4	28.4	...1884
2,208,928,420	258,163,890	2,687,818,446	8.5	18.9	72.6	47.87	10,967,040,000	52.0	24.5	...1885
2,113,173,688	175,836,220	2,818,144,031	10.8	20.5	68.7	49.09	10,218,880,000	48.7	27.6	...1886
2,540,539,789	204,241,167	3,125,276,345	6.1	19.1	74.8	53.26	11,374,720,000	53.8	27.5	...1887
2,081,280,318	60,399,496	3,016,360,183	12.5	20.5	67.0	50.29	11,011,840,000	49.9	27.4	...1888
2,251,385,937	19,751,597	3,091,376,231	11.3	16.5	72.2	50.44	11,173,120,000	54.6	27.7	...1889
2,372,852,075	47,495,577	3,192,735,098	9.6	17.6	72.8	50.72	12,772,480,000	63.7	25.0	...1890
2,998,598,436	113,051,117	3,875,344,121	16.5	9.0	74.5	60.70	14,033,600,000	59.2	27.6	...1891
3,116,136,551	19,414,620	3,919,671,292	9.8	11.2	79.0	60.22	14,230,720,000	55.1	27.5	...1892
3,254,860,127	29,232,282	4,262,589,311	12.3	12.0	75.7	64.24	14,500,608,640	53.0	29.4	...1893
3,819,020,924	64,324,539	4,936,382,960	13.2	10.7	76.1	72.99	16,532,250,560	52.7	29.9	...1894
3,175,001,780	27,234,732	4,321,674,363	18.0	9.2	72.8	62.69	17,778,582,080	60.6	24.3	...1895
3,317,505,134	10,743,185	4,494,681,898	13.5	12.9	73.6	63.98	16,215,805,760	59.6	27.1	...1896
4,328,617,723	48,770,668	5,598,391,028	13.1	10.5	76.4	78.20	17,828,489,280	64.4	31.4	...1897
2,062,201,936	19,927,465	3,468,736,934	23.0	18.1	58.9	47.55	17,329,598,720	63.0	20.0	...1898
3,358,993,675	16,964,213	4,604,811,191	13.9	13.5	72.6	61.98	17,942,422,400	62.6	25.7	...1899
3,391,324,702	26,918,380	4,477,175,236	10.9	14.0	75.1	58.91	19,369,920,640	64.7	23.1	...1900
3,970,312,507	14,015,102	5,585,008,783	14.3	14.9	70.8	71.96	21,757,115,520	62.5	25.7	...1901
3,020,491,875	15,175,805	5,018,972,657	21.9	18.2	59.9	63.35	24,625,095,040	62.9	20.4	...1902
4,197,334,773	19,529,092	6,380,165,502	18.5	16.0	65.5	78.92	22,222,280,640	58.0	28.7	...1903
3,639,052,999	41,607,988	5,661,900,411	17.8	18.7	63.5	68.66	23,124,933,440	59.0	24.5	...1904
3,602,935,574	27,428,446	6,025,772,362	21.1	19.6	59.3	71.66	21,309,706,880	51.7	28.3	...1905
3,909,957,828	37,105,110	6,491,294,803	21.4	18.9	59.7	75.74	31,241,784,000	51.7	20.8	...1906
4,366,675,219	42,879,843	7,089,668,935	21.3	17.7	61.0	81.19	32,419,822,400	49.4	21.9	...1907
3,333,589,112	43,686,270	6,590,822,991	26.1	24.0	49.9	74.11	31,181,106,880	50.3	21.1	...1908
4,105,710,716	97,879,825	7,283,363,552	23.1	21.9	55.0	80.43	32,599,871,360	47.6	22.3	...1909
3,918,593,677	189,304,952	7,360,130,811	24.1	25.2	50.7	79.90	33,415,267,200	44.2	22.0	...1910
3,707,583,445	89,436,445	7,235,972,746	24.0	26.0	50.0	77.15	38,083,411,200	50.4	19.0	...1911
3,668,997,368	102,915,741	7,862,155,291	24.4	30.2	45.4	82.43	35,585,303,040	42.9	22.1	...1912
4,536,843,342	66,569,033	8,234,477,135	21.0	24.7	54.3	85.04	40,787,743,360	49.3	20.2	...1913
4,950,028,070	96,862,462,	8,793,794,928	23.5	21.3	55.2	89.14	41,972,098,560	47.2	20.9	...1914
5,094,101,436	601,103,749	8,626,973,328	22.5	25.5	52.0	86.04	41,511,919,680	44.5	20.8	.. 1915
5,415,763,835	1,685,195,537	7,960,362,762	25.5	27.7	46.8	78.13	37,094,744,960	35.5	21.5	.[6]1916
5,064,806,051	1,268,306,254	8,467,488,163	26.7	28.4	44.9	81.81	37,144,428,160	32.4	22.8	..[6]1917

[4] Figures relate to continental United States after 1900.
[5] Expressed mainly in terms of raw sugar.
[6] Figures of production and those based thereon are somewhat preliminary and are subject to correction.

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No. 4.—COTTON: PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, IMPORTS, AND EXPORTS, 1863 TO 1917.

[Source: Reports of the Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce. Bulletin 134 of that Bureau, p. 51, cites original sources.]

Year ended[1]—	Production.[2] Running bales (counting round as half bales).	Equivalent 500-pound bales, gross weight.	Average net weight of bale.	Value of lint per pound, upland cotton.[3]	Consumption (500-pound bales).	Exports of domestic cotton (500-pound bales).	Net imports (500-pound bales).	Proportion of domestic product exported.
June 30—			*Pounds*	*Cents.*				*Per cent.*
1863	1,600,000	1,596,653	477	67.2	287,397	22,770	67,695	1.43
1864	450,000	449,059	477	101.5	219,540	23,998	52,405	5.34
1865	300,000	299,372	477	83.4	344,278	17,789	68,798	5.94
1866	2,269,316	2,093,658	441	43.2	614,540	1,301,146	10,322	62.15
Aug. 31—								
1867	2,097,254	1,948,077	444	31.6	715,258	[4] 1,401,697	[4,5] 1,035	71.95
1868	2,519,554	2,345,610	445	24.9	844,044	1,502,756	345	64.07
1869	2,366,467	2,198,141	444	29.0	860,481	1,300,449	1,870	59.16
1870	[6] 3,011,996	2,409,597	440	24.0	796,616	1,987,708	3,026	82.49
1871	4,352,317	4,024,527	442	17.0	1,026,583	2,922,757	1,802	72.62
1872	2,974,351	2,756,564	443	20.5	1,146,730	1,824,937	6,374	66.20
1873	3,930,508	3,650,932	444	18.2	1,115,691	2,470,590	10,016	67.67
1874	4,170,388	3,873,750	444	17.0	1,213,052	2,682,631	3,541	69.25
1875	3,832,991	3,528,276	440	15.0	1,098,163	2,504,118	3,784	70.97
1876	4,632,313	4,302,818	444	13.0	1,255,712	3,037,650	4,498	70.60
1877	4,474,069	4,118,390	440	11.7	1,314,489	2,839,418	4,832	68.94
1878	4,773,865	4,494,224	450	11.3	1,458,667	3,197,439	5,046	71.14
1879	5,074,155	4,745,078	447	10.8	1,457,266	3,290,167	5,049	69.34
1880	5,755,359	5,466,387	454	12.0	1,500,688	3,742,752	7,578	68.47
1881	6,605,750	6,356,998	460	11.3	1,865,922	4,453,495	5,447	70.05
1882	5,456,048	5,136,447	450	12.2	1,849,457	3,376,521	3,261	65.74
1883	6,949,756	6,833,442	470	10.6	2,038,400	4,591,331	4,716	67.19
1884	5,713,200	5,521,963	462	10.6	1,813,865	3,733,369	11,247	67.61
1885	5,682,000	5,477,448	460	10.5	1,687,108	3,730,170	7,144	69.07
1886	6,575,691	6,369,341	463	9.4	2,094,682	4,200,647	8,270	65.95
1887	6,505,087	6,314,561	464	10.3	2,049,687	4,301,542	7,552	68.12
1888	7,046,833	6,884,667	467	10.3	2,205,302	4,519,254	11,983	65.64
1889	6,938,290	6,923,775	477	10.7	2,309,250	4,730,192	15,284	68.32
1890	7,472,511	7,472,511	478	11.5	2,518,409	4,928,921	18,334	65.96
1891	8,652,597	8,562,089	473	8.6	2,604,491	5,850,219	45,580	68.33
1892	9,035,379	8,940,867	473	7.3	2,846,753	5,896,800	64,394	65.96
1893	6,700,365	6,658,313	475	8.4	2,415,875	4,485,251	85,735	67.36
1894	7,493,000	7,433,056	474	7.5	2,300,276	5,307,295	59,405	71.40
1895	9,901,251	10,025,534	484	5.9	2,983,665	6,961,372	99,399	69.44
1896	7,161,094	7,146,772	477	8.2	2,499,731	4,761,505	112,001	66.62
1897	8,532,705	8,515,640	477	7.3	2,841,394	6,124,026	114,712	71.92
1898	10,897,857	10,985,040	482	5.6	3,472,398	7,811,031	105,802	71.11
1899	11,189,205	11,435,368	489	4.9	3,672,097	7,626,525	103,223	66.69
1900	9,393,242	9,345,391	476	7.6	3,587,253	6,167,623	134,778	66.00
1901	10,102,102	10,123,027	480	9.3	3,603,516	6,806,572	116,610	67.24
1902	9,582,520	9,509,745	489	8.1	4,080,287	6,870,313	190,080	72.24
1903	10,588,250	10,630,945	481	8.2	4,187,076	6,913,506	149,113	65.03
1904	9,819,969	9,851,129	480	12.2	3,980,567	6,233,682	100,298	63.28
1905	13,451,337	13,438,012	478	8.7	4,523,208	9,057,397	130,182	67.40
1906	10,495,105	10,575,017	482	10.9	4,877,465	6,975,494	133,464	65.96
1907	12,983,201	13,273,809	490	10.0	4,974,199	8,825,236	202,733	66.49
1908	11,057,822	11,107,179	480	11.5	4,493,028	7,779,508	140,869	70.04
1909	13,086,005	13,241,799	484	9.2	5,198,963	8,889,724	165,451	67.13
1910	10,072,731	10,004,949	475	14.3	4,759,364	6,491,843	151,395	64.89
1911	11,568,334	11,608,616	480	14.0	4,713,126	8,025,991	231,191	69.14
1912	15,553,073	15,692,701	482	9.6	5,400,005	11,081,332	229,268	70.61
1913	13,488,539	13,703,421	486	11.5	5,867,431	9,199,093	225,460	67.13
1914	13,982,811	14,156,486	484	12.5	5,942,808	[7] 9,256,028	[7] 265,646	65.45
July 31—								
1915	15,905,840	16,134,930	485	7.3	6,087,338	[7] 8,931,253	[7] 363,595	55.35
1916	11,068,173	11,191,820	484	11.2	7,326,598	6,405,993	420,995	57.24
1917	11,363,915	11,449,930	482	17.3	7,721,354	5,963,682	288,486	52.09

[1] Years specified in the stub represent commercial years instead of years of growth. This explains the apparent difference between this table and reports of the Bureau of the Census.

[2] Covering as nearly as possible the crop grown during the preceding calendar year and picked mainly during the cotton year specified in the stub.

[3] 1863–1910, market prices; subsequently, growers' prices.

[4] Statistics cover 14 months.

[5] Excess of foreign exports over total imports.

[6] Equivalent 400-pound bales.

[7] Statistics for August, 1914, are included in both 1914 and 1915.

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No. 5.—WOOL PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES, 1840 TO 1917.

[Sources: Production, 1896–1913, reports of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, Boston; other years, reports of the Department of Agriculture.]

Period.[1]	Production.	Exports of domestic.	Domestic retained for consumption.	Imports.	Exports of foreign.	Foreign retained for consumption.	Total consumption, domestic and foreign.	Percent of consumption, foreign.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	
1840 [2]	35,802,114	.....	35,802,114	9,898,740	85,528	9,813,212	45,615,326	21.5
1850	52,516,959	35,898	52,481,061	18,695,294	.....	18,695,294	71,176,355	26.3
1860	60,264,913	1,055,928	59,208,985	26,282,955	157,064	26,125,891	85,334,876	30.6
1862–70 [3]	142,888,889	507,442	142,381,447	53,138,126	918,949	52,219,177	194,600,624	26.8
1871–80 [3]	186,275,000	152,303	186,122,697	68,030,280	3,938,616	64,091,664	250,214,361	25.6
1881–90 [3]	280,700,000	115,025	280,584,975	93,194,903	4,294,346	88,900,557	369,485,532	24.1
1891–95 [3]	297,991,676	1,077,118	296,914,558	142,318,925	3,636,962	138,681,964	435,596,522	31.84
1896	272,474,708	6,945,981	265,528,727	230,911,473	6,026,236	224,885,237	490,413,964	45.9
1897	259,153,251	5,271,535	253,881,716	350,852,026	3,427,834	347,424,192	601,305,908	57.8
1898	266,720,684	121,139	266,599,545	132,795,202	2,504,832	130,290,370	396,889,915	32.8
1899	272,191,330	1,683,419	270,507,911	76,736,209	12,412,916	64,323,293	334,831,204	19.2
1900	288,636,621	2,200,309	286,436,312	155,928,455	5,702,251	150,226,204	436,662,516	34.4
1901 [4]	302,502,328	199,565	302,302,763	103,583,505	3,590,502	99,993,003	402,295,766	24.9
1902 [4]	316,341,032	123,278	316,217,754	166,576,966	3,104,663	163,472,303	479,690,057	34.1
1903 [4]	287,450,000	518,919	286,931,081	177,137,796	2,992,995	174,144,801	461,075,882	37.8
1904 [4]	291,783,032	319,750	291,463,282	173,742,834	2,863,053	170,879,781	462,343,063	37.0
1905 [4]	295,488,438	123,951	295,364,487	249,135,746	2,437,697	246,698,049	542,062,536	45.5
1906 [4]	298,915,130	192,481	298,722,649	201,688,668	5,450,378	196,238,290	494,960,939	39.6
1907 [4]	298,294,750	214,840	298,079,910	203,847,545	3,231,908	200,615,637	498,695,547	40.0
1908 [4]	311,138,321	182,458	310,955,863	125,980,524	5,684,357	120,296,167	431,252,030	27.9
1909 [4]	328,110,749	28,376	328,082,373	266,409,304	3,495,599	262,913,705	590,996,078	44.5
1910 [4]	321,362,750	47,520	321,315,230	263,928,232	4,007,953	259,920,279	581,235,509	44.7
1911 [4]	318,547,900	.....	318,547,900	137,647,641	8,205,699	129,441,942	447,989,842	28.9
1912 [4]	304,043,400	.....	304,043,400	193,400,713	1,719,870	191,680,843	495,724,243	38.7
1913 [4]	296,175,300	770,471	295,404,829	195,293,255	4,432,404	190,860,851	486,265,680	39.3
1914 [4]	290,192,000	335,348	289,856,652	247,648,869	1,204,835	246,444,034	536,300,686	46.0
1915 [4]	285,726,000	8,158,300	277,567,700	308,083,429	7,259,934	300,823,495	578,391,195	52.0
1916 [4]	288,490,000	4,418,915	284,071,085	534,828,022	1,803,570	533,024,452	817,095,537	65.2
1917 [4]	285,573,000	2,148,350	283,424,650	372,372,218	1,830,374	370,541,844	653,966,494	56.66

[1] The periods relate to years ended June 30. [2] Year ended Sept. 30. [3] Average for the period.
[4] Data relate to United States as a whole. Production (if any) for noncontiguous territory is lacking.

No. 6.—COKE PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES (IN TONS OF 2,240 POUNDS), 1896 TO 1917.

[Source: Production, reports of the Geological Survey, Department of the Interior.]

Year ended June 30—	Production.[1]	Net imports.	Total.	Domestic exports.	Remaining for consumption.	Per cent of product exported.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	
1896–1900 [2]	13,237,008	43,229	13,280,237	215,355	13,064,882	1.63
1901 [3]	18,333,346	75,103	18,408,449	365,888	18,042,561	2.00
1902 [3]	19,460,610	99,465	19,560,075	402,495	19,157,580	2.07
1903 [3]	22,680,116	122,630	22,802,746	380,038	22,422,708	1.68
1904 [3]	22,566,322	123,124	22,689,416	479,431	22,210,015	2.12
1905 [3]	21,125,988	195,952	21,321,940	550,188	20,771,329	2.60
1906 [3]	28,777,794	157,577	28,935,371	679,773	28,255,598	2.36
1907 [3]	32,501,087	129,163	32,630,250	823,040	31,807,210	2.53
1908 [3]	36,410,325	119,196	36,529,521	763,809	35,765,712	2.10
1909 [3]	23,244,213	169,902	23,414,115	765,535	22,648,580	3.29
1910 [3]	35,102,737	128,197	35,230,934	872,013	34,358,921	2.48
1911 [3]	37,240,009	143,984	37,383,993	946,474	36,437,519	2.54
1912 [3]	31,742,401	65,687	31,808,088	805,819	31,002,269	2.54
1913 [3]	39,271,070	102,715	39,373,785	900,672	38,473,113	2.29
1914 [3]	41,338,866	112,528	41,451,394	742,476	40,708,918	1.80
1915 [3]	30,853,495	88,735	30,942,230	602,473	30,339,757	1.95
1916 [3]	37,126,026	59,753	37,185,779	976,398	36,209,381	2.63
1917 [3]	31,664,893	24,782	31,689,675	1,170,824	30,518,851	3.70

[1] The production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year.
[2] Average for the period.
[3] Data relate to United States as a whole.

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No. 7.—SALT PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES, 1881 TO 1917.[1]

Year ended June 30—	Production.[2]	Exports of domestic.	Domestic retained for consumption.	Imports.	Exports of foreign.	Total retained for consumption.	Consumption per capita.	Per cent of consumption, foreign.
	Thousand pounds.	*Thousand pounds.*	*Thousand pounds.*	*Thousand pounds.*	*Thous. pounds.*	*Thousand pounds.*	*Pounds.*	
1881–90 [3]	1,957,753	4,026	1,953,727	805,169	2,353	2,756,543	48.4	29.12
1891	2,457,557	5,242	2,452,315	511,586	1,823	2,962,078	46.4	17.21
1892	2,796,625	4,375	2,792,250	470,152	3,623	3,258,779	50.0	14.32
1893	3,275,689	6,777	3,268,912	391,967	1,441	3,659,438	55.1	10.67
1894	3,308,696	11,891	3,296,805	345,479	3,378	3,638,906	53.8	9.41
1895	3,630,877	8,700	3,622,177	496,811	3,253	4,115,736	59.7	11.99
1896	3,827,502	9,766	3,817,736	553,280	6,093	4,364,923	62.1	12.53
1897	3,878,203	10,101	3,868,102	598,358	6,189	4,460,271	62.3	13.28
1898	4,472,497	17,073	4,455,424	342,254	5,135	4,792,543	65.7	7.03
1899	4,931,538	25,257	4,906,281	363,783	4,193	5,265,871	70.9	6.83
1900	5,518,412	12,732	5,505,680	410,792	4,226	5,912,246	77.8	6.87
1901	5,843,416	14,183	5,829,233	407,925	3,206	6,233,952	80.3	6.49
1902	5,758,665	17,323	5,741,342	381,875	3,405	6,119,812	77.2	6.18
1903	6,677,785	16,446	6,661,339	342,144	1,581	7,001,902	86.6	4.86
1904	5,311,065	25,509	5,285,556	342,150	7,817	5,619,889	68.1	5.95
1905	6,168,401	50,886	6,117,515	308,572	1,235	6,424,852	76.4	4.78
1906	7,270,514	72,059	7,198,455	329,796	562	7,527,689	87.8	4.37
1907	7,888,266	64,053	7,824,213	324,721	2,092	8,146,842	93.3	3.96
1908	8,317,156	52,107	8,265,049	354,427	2,695	8,616,741	96.9	4.08
1909	8,070,177	66,474	8,003,703	274,455	907	8,277,251	91.4	3.30
1910	8,430,141	83,817	8,346,324	296,200	2,596	8,639,928	93.7	3.40
1911	8,485,584	102,033	8,383,551	291,134	1,015	8,673,670	92.5	3.34
1912	8,731,511	111,009	8,620,502	263,682	45	8,884,139	93.1	2.97
1913	9,330,946	128,036	9,202,910	275,370	346	9,477,934	97.7	2.90
1914	9,631,803	149,123	9,482,680	307,607	3,694	9,786,593	99.2	3.11
1915	9,745,311	165,619	9,579,692	261,869	6,128	9,835,433	98.1	2.60
1916	10,704,819	165,638	10,539,181	213,913	10,310	10,742,784	103.9	1.90
1917	12,725,812	194,151	12,531,661	219,861	15,186	12,736,336	121.3	1.62

[1] Data relate to the United States as a whole, except that figures of production (if any) prior to 1910 are lacking for Porto Rico and Hawaii.
[2] The production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year.
[3] Average for the period.

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No. 8.—ANTHRACITE COAL PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES (IN TONS OF 2,240 POUNDS), 1867 TO 1917.

[Source: Production, reports of the Geological Survey, Department of the Interior.]

Year ended June 30—	Production.[1]	Net imports.[2]	Total.	Domestic exports.	Remaining for consumption.	Per cent of product exported.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	
1867–70[3]	14,674,069	64	14,674,133	126,575	14,547,558	0.86
1871–80[3]	20,807,851	691	20,808,342	333,131	20,475,311	1.60
1881–90[3]	34,190,261	8,081	34,198,342	685,782	33,512,560	2.01
1891–95[3]	45,624,150	57,022	45,681,172	1,117,955	44,563,277	2.45
1896–1900[3]	49,778,169	48,667	49,826,836	1,468,856	48,357,980	2.95
1901[4]	51,221,353	1	51,221,354	1,912,080	49,309,274	3.73
1902[4]	60,242,560	295	60,242,855	1,570,490	58,672,365	2.61
1903[4]	36,940,710	340,849	37,281,559	1,388,653	35,892,906	3.72
1904[4]	66,613,454	30,873	66,644,327	2,048,154	64,596,173	3.07
1905[4]	65,318,490	64,812	65,383,302	2,312,082	63,071,220	3.54
1906[4]	69,339,152	36,708	69,375,860	1,970,401	67,405,459	2.84
1907[4]	63,645,010	23,113	63,668,123	2,481,920	61,186,203	3.90
1908[4]	76,432,421	24,907	76,457,328	3,837,778	72,619,550	5.02
1909[4]	74,347,102	4,585	74,351,687	2,869,762	71,481,925	3.86
1910[4]	64,619,865	1,746	64,621,611	2,953,633	61,667,978	4.57
1911[4]	75,433,246	8,339	75,441,585	3,146,388	72,295,197	4.17
1912[4]	80,771,488	2,189	80,773,677	2,979,102	77,794,575	3.69
1913[4]	75,322,855	1,670	75,324,525	4,625,481	70,699,044	6.14
1914[4]	81,718,680	8,124	81,726,804	3,959,114	77,767,690	4.84
1915[4]	81,090,631	8,637	81,099,268	3,682,188	77,417,080	4.54
1916[4]	79,459,876	7,216	79,467,092	3,878,478	75,588,614	4.88
1917[4]	78,195,083	1,761	78,196,844	4,635,134	73,561,710	5.93

[1] The production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year and does not include small amounts of anthracite coal mined outside of Pennsylvania except for 1881.
[2] Imports for consumption from 1869 to 1893, inclusive, and after 1910.
[3] Average for the period.
[4] Data relate to United States as a whole.

No. 9.—BITUMINOUS COAL PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES (IN TONS OF 2,240 POUNDS), 1857 TO 1917.

[Source: Production, reports of the Geological Survey, Department of the Interior.]

Year ended June 30—	Production.[1]	Net imports.[2]	Total.	Domestic exports.	Remaining for consumption.	Per cent of product exported.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	
1857–60[3]	4,849,899	253,966	5,103,865	146,499	4,957,366	3.02
1861–70[3]	10,109,680	349,445	10,459,125	157,798	10,301,327	1.56
1871–80[3]	26,848,751	477,587	27,326,338	247,293	27,079,045	.92
1881–90[3]	67,783,066	857,792	68,645,858	620,267	68,025,591	.91
1891–95[3]	107,726,029	1,178,952	108,904,981	1,900,418	107,004,563	1.76
1896–1900[3]	139,338,000	1,348,737	140,686,737	3,240,890	137,445,847	2.33
1901[4]	189,567,957	1,973,134	191,541,091	5,763,469	185,777,622	3.04
1902[4]	201,632,276	1,936,290	203,568,566	5,400,694	198,167,872	2.68
1903[4]	232,336,468	3,519,843	235,856,311	5,210,322	230,645,989	2.24
1904[4]	252,454,775	1,940,962	254,395,737	6,434,713	247,961,024	2.55
1905[4]	248,803,294	1,514,500	250,317,794	6,707,788	243,610,006	2.69
1906[4]	281,306,058	1,818,758	283,124,816	7,155,592	275,969,224	2.54
1907[4]	306,138,274	1,687,081	307,825,355	8,812,332	299,013,023	2.88
1908[4]	352,463,493	1,975,625	354,439,118	9,884,957	344,554,161	2.80
1909[4]	296,941,021	1,224,999	298,166,020	9,018,867	289,147,153	3.04
1910[4]	339,057,372	1,623,073	340,680,445	10,413,439	330,267,006	3.07
1911[4]	372,420,663	1,755,242	374,175,905	11,839,099	362,336,806	3.18
1912[4]	362,417,017	1,299,106	363,716,123	14,709,847	349,006,276	4.06
1913[4]	401,879,448	1,576,889	403,456,337	16,083,101	387,373,236	4.00
1914[4]	427,174,372	1,348,156	428,522,528	15,704,966	412,817,562	3.68
1915[4]	377,414,259	1,417,566	378,831,825	14,412,995	364,418,830	3.82
1916[4]	395,200,380	1,595,119	396,795,499	18,749,684	378,045,815	4.71
1917[4]	448,678,288	1,277,259	449,955,547	19,533,705	430,421,842	4.35

[1] The production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year and includes such small amounts of anthracite as have been mined outside of Pennsylvania except in 1881.
[2] Kind of coal not specified prior to 1866.
[3] Average for the period.
[4] Data relate to United States as a whole.

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No. 10.—PIG IRON PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES (IN TONS OF 2,240 POUNDS), 1867 TO 1917.

[Source: Production, reports of the American Iron and Steel Association, Philadelphia.]

Period.[1]	Production.[2]	Exports of domestic.	Domestic retained for consumption.	Imports.[3]	Exports of foreign.	Total retained for consumption.	Per cent of consumption, foreign.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	
1867-70[4]	1,413,306	590	1,412,716	128,608	70	1,541,254	8.34
1871-80[4]	2,188,526	5,393	2,183,133	183,125	400	2,365,858	7.72
1881-90[4]	5,153,453	7,886	5,145,567	311,224	1,058	5,455,733	5.69
1891-95[4]	8,064,293	19,698	8,064,595	53,536	148	8,117,983	.65
1896-1900[4]	10,623,350	179,190	10,444,160	44,068	410	10,487,818	.41
1901-5[4,5]	16,309,037	83,952	16,315,085	293,719	937	16,607,867	1.76
1906[5]	22,992,380	59,509	22,932,871	271,790	3,160	23,201,501	1.16
1907[5]	25,307,191	85,000	25,222,191	564,846	5,663	25,781,374	2.17
1908[5]	25,781,361	52,518	25,729,843	204,092	1,730	25,931,205	.78
1909[5]	15,936,018	50,178	15,885,840	104,655	1,640	15,988,855	1.64
1910[5]	25,795,471	79,771	25,715,700	237,594	627	25,952,667	.91
1911[5]	27,303,567	152,807	27,150,760	206,194	1,814	27,355,140	.75
1912[5]	23,649,547	185,985	23,463,562	115,321	4,863	23,574,020	.47
1913[5]	29,726,937	287,022	29,439,915	155,169	966	29,596,050	.52
1914[5]	30,966,152	201,995	30,764,157	136,444	398	30,900,203	.44
1915[5]	23,332,244	130,594	23,201,650	107,400	2,761	23,306,289	.45
1916[5]	29,916,213	286,728	29,629,485	118,187	790	29,746,882	.40
1917[5]	39,434,797	834,930	38,599,867	118,251	508	38,717,610	.30

[1] The periods relate to years ended June 30.
[2] The production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year.
[3] Mostly ferromanganese.
[4] Average for the period.
[5] Data relate to United States as a whole. Production (if any) for noncontiguous territory is lacking.

No. 11.—IRON AND STEEL RAILS FOR RAILWAYS, PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES (IN TONS OF 2,240 POUNDS), 1867 TO 1917.

[Source: Production, reports of the American Iron and Steel Association, Philadelphia.]

Period.[1]	Production.[2]			Exports of domestic.[3]	Domestic retained for consumption.	Imports.	Exports of foreign.	Total retained for consumption
	Iron.	Steel.	Total.					
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
1867-70[4]	440,571	4,336	444,907	299	444,608	191,210	280	635,538
1871-80[4]	501,728	252,560	754,288	2,549	751,739	169,838	4,676	916,901
1881-90[4]	123,821	1,310,152	1,433,973	4,655	1,429,318	97,731	9,059	1,517,990
1891-95[4]	8,664	1,371,847	1,380,511	13,735	1,366,776	865	422	1,367,219
1896-1900[4]	3,588	1,662,407	1,665,995	199,612	1,466,383	2,494	80	1,468,797
1901-5[4,5]	2,095	2,694,993	2,697,088	227,465	2,469,623	41,787	232	2,511,178
1906[5]	318	3,375,611	3,375,929	345,826	3,030,103	9,635	2	3,039,736
1907[5]	15	3,977,872	3,977,887	291,322	3,686,565	4,610	.....	3,691,175
1908[5]	925	3,632,729	3,633,654	278,867	3,354,787	2,839	.....	3,357,626
1909[5]	71	1,920,944	1,921,015	234,128	1,686,887	1,292	.....	1,688,179
1910[5]	.....	3,023,845	3,023,845	369,578	2,654,267	7,030	.....	2,661,297
1911[5]	230	3,635,801	3,636,031	391,428	3,244,603	[6] 4,297	.....	3,248,900
1912[5]	234	2,822,556	2,822,790	417,547	2,405,243	3,297	.....	2,408,540
1913[5]	.....	3,327,915	3,327,915	453,145	2,874,770	5,024	29	2,879,765
1914[5]	.....	3,502,780	3,502,780	338,613	3,164,167	15,507	20	3,179,654
1915[5]	.....	1,945,095	1,945,095	159,587	1,785,508	55,092	.....	1,840,600
1916[5]	.....	2,204,203	2,204,203	537,918	1,666,285	53,944	197	1,720,032
1917[5]	.....	2,854,518	2,854,518	594,389	2,260,129	14,067	33	2,274,163

[1] The periods relate to years ended June 30.
[2] The production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year.
[3] Includes only steel rails after 1905.
[4] Average for the period.
[5] Data relate to United States as a whole. Production (if any) for noncontiguous territory is lacking.
[6] Imports for consumption.

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No. 12.—COFFEE IMPORTED INTO AND EXPORTED FROM CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES, AVERAGE IMPORT PRICE PER POUND, AND ESTIMATED CONSUMPTION PER CAPITA: QUANTITIES AND VALUES, 1847 TO 1917.

Period.[1]	Imports.[2]		Exports.[3]		Remaining for consumption.		Average price per lb.	Consumption per capita.
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
	Pounds.	*Dollars.*	*Pounds.*	*Dollars.*	*Pounds.*	*Dollars.*	*Cents.*	*Lbs.*
1847–50[4]	154,724,895	9,413,791	10,835,938	771,812	143,888,957	8,641,979	6.0	6.49
1851–60[4]	203,190,285	18,370,205	14,709,948	1,480,723	188,480,337	16,889,482	9.0	6.81
1861–70[4]	173,289,766	18,790,274	8,228,527	1,388,843	165,061,239	17,401,431	10.5	4.69
1871–80[4]	331,924,815	48,874,140	7,910,648	1,257,182	324,014,167	47,616,958	14.7	7.25
1881–90[4]	513,039,498	55,380,702	24,725,173	2,898,013	488,314,325	52,482,689	10.8	8.59
1891–95[4]	585,270,320	98,219,332	8,787,877	1,485,655	576,482,443	96,733,677	[5]16.78	8.69
1896–1900[4]	761,715,403	67,829,710	21,819,383	2,379,750	739,896,020	65,449,960	8.9	10.13
1901–5[4]	983,464,406	69,815,087	40,399,545	3,532,779	943,064,861	66,282,308	7.1	11.66
1906	853,799,615	73,514,444	19,132,592	1,907,708	834,667,023	71,606,736	8.6	9.74
1907	986,595,923	78,382,823	11,626,599	1,293,184	974,969,324	77,089,639	7.9	11.17
1908	892,092,410	67,863,830	17,115,254	1,597,088	874,977,156	66,266,742	7.6	9.84
1909	1,051,749,705	79,341,076	15,187,757	1,484,239	1,036,561,948	77,856,837	7.5	11.45
1910	873,983,689	69,504,647	13,569,288	1,513,684	860,414,401	67,990,963	7.9	9.33
1911	878,322,468	90,949,963	8,371,003	1,096,052	869,951,465	89,853,911	10.3	9.28
1912	887,747,747	118,233,958	7,196,311	1,085,562	880,551,436	117,148,396	13.3	9.23
1913	866,053,699	119,449,045	7,134,641	1,139,134	858,919,058	118,309,911	13.8	8.85
1914	1,006,362,294	111,454,240	13,811,301	2,137,967	992,550,993	109,316,273	11.1	10.06
1915	1,126,041,691	107,794,377	70,952,754	8,288,894	1,055,088,937	99,505,483	9.6	10.52
1916	1,203,840,591	115,905,134	75,817,516	9,108,566	1,128,023,075	106,796,568	9.6	10.97
1917	1,322,058,526	133,513,226	57,502,893	7,936,082	1,264,555,633	125,577,144	10.1	12.22

[1] The periods relate to years ended June 30.
[2] After 1900 includes imports into continental United States and shipments thereto from noncontiguous customs districts.
[3] After 1900 includes exports, domestic and foreign, from continental United States and shipments therefrom to noncontiguous customs districts.
[4] Average for the period.
[5] Import prices for 1891 and 1892 were overvalued by reason of depreciation of Brazilian paper milreis.

No. 13.—TEA IMPORTED INTO AND EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, AVERAGE IMPORT PRICE PER POUND, AND ESTIMATED CONSUMPTION PER CAPITA: QUANTITIES AND VALUES, 1847 TO 1917.

Period.[1]	Imports.		Foreign exports.		Net imports.		Average price per pound.	Consumption per capita.
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		
	Pounds.	*Dollars.*	*Pounds.*	*Dollars.*	*Pounds.*	*Dollars.*	*Cents.*	*Lbs.*
1847–50[2]	21,837,037	4,832,880	2,686,938	959,600	19,150,099	3,873,280	20.0	0.86
1851–60[2]	25,658,898	7,028,639	4,631,040	1,668,081	21,027,858	5,360,558	25.5	.76
1861–70[2]	34,943,675	9,924,418	2,549,468	955,864	32,394,207	8,968,554	28.4	.92
1871–80[2]	61,961,814	19,417,635	2,425,808	868,006	59,536,006	18,549,629	31.3	1.33
1881–90[2]	79,367,298	15,650,840	2,833,072	579,454	76,534,226	15,071,386	14.7	1.35
1891–95[2]	90,673,168	13,875,064	997,896	185,772	89,675,272	13,689,292	16.3	1.35
1896–1900[2]	87,647,653	11,565,555	1,430,810	208,918	86,216,843	11,356,637	13.2	1.18
1901–5[2,3]	97,914,524	14,105,480	2,100,610	256,330	95,813,914	13,849,150	14.41	1.27
1906[3]	93,621,750	14,580,878	1,055,897	180,680	92,565,853	14,400,198	15.6	1.06
1907[3]	86,368,490	13,915,544	1,520,229	207,094	84,848,261	13,708,450	16.1	.96
1908[3]	94,149,564	16,309,870	1,046,474	148,441	93,103,090	16,161,429	17.3	1.03
1909[3]	114,916,520	18,562,676	759,083	128,519	114,157,437	18,434,157	16.2	1.24
1910[3]	85,626,370	13,671,946	2,328,351	323,084	83,298,019	13,348,862	16.0	.89
1911[3]	102,653,942	17,613,569	3,287,366	447,304	99,366,576	17,166,265	17.2	1.04
1912[3]	101,406,816	18,207,141	1,011,920	150,405	100,394,896	18,056,736	18.0	1.05
1913[3]	94,812,800	17,433,688	901,745	139,178	93,911,055	17,294,510	18.4	.95
1914[3]	91,130,815	16,735,302	983,222	136,781	90,147,593	16,598,521	18.4	.90
1915[3]	96,987,942	17,512,619	4,813,878	749,255	92,174,064	16,763,364	18.1	.91
1916[3]	109,865,935	20,599,857	790,474	157,736	109,075,461	20,442,121	18.7	1.07
1917[3]	103,364,410	19,265,264	625,315	196,803	102,739,095	19,068,461	18.6	.98

[1] The periods relate to years ended June 30.
[2] Average for the period.
[3] Data relate to United States as a whole. Production (if any) for noncontiguous territory is lacking.

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No. 14.—DISTILLED SPIRITS, WINES, AND MALT LIQUORS: Quantities Consumed and Average Annual Consumption per Capita in the United States, 1850 to 1917.[1]

[Source: The production of domestic wines has been estimated by the Department of Agriculture, by Mr. J. W. Schopp, of Bonfortis Wine and Spirit Circular (Inc.), New York, and other well-informed persons. The production of domestic spirituous and malt liquors has been derived from the reports of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue. The table does not include for any year withdrawals of distilled spirits for scientific purposes and for use of the United States, or since 1906 withdrawals for denaturation, free of tax. For 1917 these amounts were 5,676,951 tax gallons and 93,762,423 proof gallons, respectively.]

Year ended June 30—	Distilled spirits consumed.				Wines consumed.			Malt liquors consumed.			Total consumption of wines and liquors.[2]	Total consumption per capita.			
	Domestic.[2]		Imported for consumption.	Total.[2]	Domestic.[4]	Imported for consumption.	Total.[2]	Domestic.[4]	Imported for consumption.	Total.[2]		Of distilled spirits.[2]	Of wines.[3]	Of malt liquors.[3]	Of all liquors and wines.[3]
	From fruit.	All other.													
	Proof galls.	*Proof galls.*	*Proof galls.*	*Proof galls.*	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*P. galls.*	*Galls.*	*Galls.*	*Galls.*
1850....	(5)	46,768,083	5,065,390	51,833,473	221,249	6,095,122	6,316,371	36,361,708	201,301	36,563,009	94,712,853	2.24	0.27	1.58	4.08
1860....	(5)	83,904,258	6,064,393	89,968,651	1,860,008	8,944,679	10,804,687	100,225,879	1,120,790	101,346,669	202,120,007	2.86	.34	3.22	6.43
1870....	1,223,830	77,266,368	1,405,510	79,895,708	3,059,518	9,165,549	12,225,067	203,743,401	1,012,755	204,756,156	296,876,931	2.07	.32	5.31	7.70
1871-80	1,438,179	58,950,489	1,643,416	62,032,085	13,781,774	7,077,921	20,859,695	308,197,473	1,469,185	309,666,658	392,558,432	1.39	.47	6.93	8.79
1881-90	1,323,579	73,521,253	1,530,376	76,375,208	22,484,024	5,034,849	27,518,873	645,092,353	2,088,012	647,180,365	751,074,446	1.34	.48	11.38	13.21
1891-95	1,480,259	88,960,330	1,348,097	91,788,686	21,558,200	4,788,008	26,346,208	1,014,933,842	3,073,846	1,018,007,688	1,136,142,582	1.38	.40	15.34	17.12
1896....	1,440,810	67,743,431	1,541,504	70,725,745	14,599,757	4,101,648	18,701,405	1,110,165,435	3,300,531	1,113,465,966	1,202,893,116	1.01	.27	15.85	17.12
1897....	1,146,131	69,653,106	2,230,711	73,029,948	33,940,319	4,331,159	38,271,478	1,066,637,650	3,002,558	1,069,640,208	1,180,941,634	1.02	.53	14.94	16.50
1898....	1,411,448	79,266,860	915,985	81,594,293	17,453,684	3,114,339	20,568,023	1,162,042,753	2,457,348	1,164,500,101	1,266,662,417	1.12	.28	15.96	17.37
1899....	1,306,218	84,739,631	1,387,593	87,433,442	22,835,587	3,524,912	26,360,499	1,133,583,481	2,797,427	1,136,380,908	1,250,174,849	1.18	.35	15.30	16.82
1900....	1,386,361	94,265,035	1,705,468	97,356,864	26,242,492	3,745,975	29,988,467	1,219,070,196	3,316,908	1,222,387,104	1,349,732,435	1.28	.39	16.09	17.76
1901....	1,509,271	100,004,878	1,941,189	103,455,338	24,008,380	4,388,140	28,396,520	1,255,464,062	3,596,382	1,259,060,444	1,390,912,302	1.31	.36	15.98	17.65
1902....	1,403,204	104,140,707	2,182,230	107,726,141	44,743,815	5,020,105	49,763,920	1,378,661,954	3,707,222	1,382,369,176	1,539,859,237	1.34	.61	17.18	19.14
1903....	1,515,072	113,715,776	2,439,106	117,669,954	32,634,293	5,604,525	38,238,818	1,446,103,812	4,204,538	1,450,308,350	1,606,217,122	1.43	.47	17.67	19.57
1904....	1,637,331	116,794,496	2,655,560	121,087,387	37,538,799	5,772,418	43,311,217	1,494,541,140	4,837,075	1,499,378,215	1,663,776,829	1.45	.52	17.91	19.87
1905....	1,595,021	116,544,802	2,729,826	120,869,649	29,369,408	5,690,309	35,059,717	1,533,325,442	5,201,168	1,538,526,610	1,694,455,976	1.42	.41	18.02	19.85
1906....	1,781,643	122,961,612	3,108,328	127,851,583	39,847,044	6,638,179	46,485,223	1,694,458,014	5,963,207	1,700,421,221	1,874,758,027	1.47	.53	19.54	21.55
1907....	1,993,688	134,308,693	3,782,055	140,084,436	50,079,283	7,659,565	57,738,848	1,815,141,683	7,171,842	1,822,313,525	2,020,136,809	1.58	.65	20.56	22.79
1908....	1,670,031	119,951,185	3,758,098	125,379,314	44,421,269	7,700,377	52,121,646	1,821,418,322	7,314,126	1,828,732,448	2,006,233,408	1.39	.58	20.26	22.22
1909....	1,350,700	114,913,702	4,365,634	121,130,036	53,609,995	8,169,554	61,779,549	1,745,523,769	7,110,657	1,752,634,426	1,935,544,011	1.32	.67	19.07	21.06
1910....	2,204,184	126,593,951	4,340,549	133,138,684	50,684,343	9,863,735	60,548,078	1,844,065,029	7,301,629	1,851,666,658	2,045,353,420	1.42	.65	20.09	22.19
1911....	2,434,045	132,315,123	3,836,821	138,585,989	56,655,006	7,204,226	63,859,232	1,959,671,296	7,240,458	1,966,911,754	2,169,356,975	1.46	.67	20.66	22.79
1912....	2,449,331	133,502,079	3,544,921	139,496,331	50,619,880	5,804,831	56,424,711	1,925,361,507	7,169,677	1,932,531,184	2,128,452,226	1.44	.58	19.96	21.98
1913....	2,801,767	140,521,880	4,121,981	147,745,628	48,683,849	6,643,612	55,327,461	2,022,678,149	7,669,223	2,030,347,372	2,233,420,461	1.50	.56	20.62	22.68
1914....	2,704,752	136,521,805	4,220,670	143,447,227	44,973,643	7,444,787	52,418,430	2,049,236,412	7,170,696	2,056,407,108	2,252,272,765	1.43	.52	20.54	22.50
1915....	2,516,054	121,660,596	2,952,448	127,159,098	27,255,690	5,656,219	32,911,909	1,852,136,960	3,387,324	1,855,524,284	2,015,595,291	1.25	.32	18.24	19.80
1916....	2,984,743	133,267,803	3,721,138	139,973,684	42,229,206	5,357,939	47,587,145	1,815,694,727	2,580,315	1,818,275,042	2,005,835,871	1.35	.46	17.59	19.40
1917....	3,068,669	161,012,068	3,059,588	167,740,325	37,640,495	5,082,881	42,723,376	1,881,964,835	2,300,542	1,884,265,377	2,094,729,078	1.60	.41	17.94	19.95

[1] With respect to units of quantity, see explanatory notes, p. 7.
[2] Since 1885 includes domestic spirits exported and returned.
[3] Data relate to the United States as a whole, except that figures of production for noncontiguous territory are incomplete.
[4] Product less domestic exports.
[5] Included with "All other."

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No. 15.—PULP-WOOD CONSUMPTION: TOTAL QUANTITY CONSUMED, CALENDAR YEARS 1909 AND 1910, AND QUANTITIES CONSUMED, BY STATES AND SPECIES, CALENDAR YEAR 1911.

[Source: Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce, in cooperation with the Forest Service, Department of Agriculture.]

State.	1909	1910	1911							
			Spruce.		Hemlock.	Poplar.		Balsam fir.	All other species.	Total.
			Domestic.	Imported.		Domestic.	Imported.			
	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords	Cords.	Cords.
Maine	903,962	917,029	545,765	153,486	11,223	138,356	5,753	62,745	38,440	955,768
Massachusetts	45,899	40,146	13,069	16,539	20	3,901	225	2,142	10,691	46,587
Michigan	132,846	136,851	22,271	11,723	56,513	394	2,798	13,682	37,060	144,446
Minnesota	47,373	40,604	41,729	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	41,729
New Hampshire	349,997	423,931	150,967	213,352	.....	2,361	.....	11,333	25,000	403,013
New York	921,882	956,916	396,334	429,017	63,594	49,442	21,369	77,931	11,423	1,049,110
North Carolina	145,090	152,261	16,975	.....	46,096	8,346	.....	.....	88,207	159,624
Ohio	55,275	38,693	.....	3,000	.....	1,308	.....	.....	27,756	32,064
Oregon	104,021	110,701	36,377	.....	53,899	.....	.....	.....	29,614	119,890
Pennsylvania	295,038	322,161	1,154	55,089	33,181	30,970	4,150	.....	191,138	315,682
Vermont	(1)	69,546	46,061	20,529	4,544	1,938	.....	9,024	300	82,396
Virginia	92,039	89,637	61,505	.....	.....	27,956	.....	.....	9,157	98,618
West Virginia	109,166	108,121	46,059	.....	7,000	1,038	.....	.....	60,810	114,907
Wisconsin	(1)	523,924	231,026	640	311,470	2,296	.....	14,922	31,564	591,918
All other States[2]	[3] 799,019	163,785	3,063	.....	29,118	65,623	.....	.....	97,804	172,300
Total	4,001,607	4,094,306	1,612,355	903,375	616,663	333,929	34,295	191,779	635,656	4,328,052

[1] Not shown separately.
[2] Includes California, Delaware, Maryland, South Carolina, Texas, and Washington.
[3] Includes California, Delaware, Maryland, South Carolina, Texas, Vermont, Washington, and Wisconsin.

No. 16.—PULP-WOOD CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES CONSUMED, BY SPECIES, AND PROCESSES OF MANUFACTURE, CALENDAR YEARS 1910 AND 1911.

[Source: Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce, in cooperation with the Forest Service, Department of Agriculture.]

Kind.	1910					1911				
	Reduced by—				Total.	Reduced by—				Total.
	Mechanical process.	Sulphite process.	Soda process.	Sulphate process.		Mechanical process.	Sulphite process.	Soda process.	Sulphate process.	
	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.	Cords.
Spruce:										
Domestic	735,962	734,328	2,115	1,137	1,473,542	822,743	786,632	1,331	1,649	1,612,355
Imported	304,582	597,825	.....	.....	902,407	298,960	604,415	.....	.....	903,375
Hemlock	33,745	574,109	658	1,966	610,478	32,162	563,535	4,803	16,163	616,663
Poplar:										
Domestic	11,613	625	303,401	78	315,717	9,040	4,101	320,763	25	333,929
Imported	1,834	.....	43,525	.....	45,359	3,718	.....	30,577	.....	34,295
Balsam fir	49,294	81,932	.....	1,136	132,362	89,485	100,339	.....	1,955	191,779
Pine	22,367	4,720	74,525	4,270	105,882	28,306	4,286	86,135	5,292	124,019
Beech	.....	.....	44,265	.....	44,265	.....	.....	44,320	.....	44,320
Maple[1]	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	36,979	.....	36,979
Cottonwood	14,636	5,553	10,910	.....	31,099	3,995	32,498	.....	.....	36,493
White fir	3,048	27,797	.....	.....	30,845	12,915	67	12,061	.....	25,043
All other kinds of wood	124	1,285	136,708	1,596	139,713	355	763	84,310	2,840	88,268
Slab wood and other mill waste	3,393	219,519	39,720	5	262,637	12,462	245,914	21,401	757	280,534
Total	1,180,598	2,247,693	655,827	10,188	4,094,306	1,314,141	2,342,550	642,680	28,681	4,328,052

[1] Not separately shown for 1910.

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No. 17.—TIN PLATES, TERNEPLATES, AND TAGGERS TIN PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES, 1899 TO 1917.

[Source: Production, reports of the American Iron and Steel Association, Philadelphia.]

Year ended June 30—	Production.[1]	Exports of domestic.	Domestic retained for consumption.	Imports.	Exports of foreign.	Total retained for consumption.	Per cent of consumption, foreign.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	
1899–1900 [2]	770,324,800	262,744	770,062,056	128,224,315	674,020	897,612,350	14.21
1901	677,969,600	1,367,405	676,602,195	117,880,312	519,400	793,963,107	14.78
1902	894,411,840	2,405,812	892,006,028	198,996,086	183,738	1,090,818,381	18.23
1903	806,400,000	1,555,146	804,844,854	109,913,293	79,190	914,678,957	12.01
1904	1,075,200,000	8,107,666	1,067,092,334	126,909,360	1,120	1,194,000,574	10.63
1905	1,026,384,851	22,990,816	1,003,394,035	161,066,820	180,550	1,164,280,305	14.00
1906	1,105,440,000	25,967,137	1,079,472,863	120,819,732	57,648	1,200,234,947	10.06
1907	1,293,740,000	19,894,288	1,273,845,712	142,529,406	1,379	1,416,373,739	10.06
1908	1,153,097,000	33,622,717	1,119,474,283	140,739,972	59,074	1,260,155,181	11.17
1909	1,203,075,000	11,411,104	1,191,663,896	117,312,174	11,000	1,308,965,070	9.00
1910	1,370,788,000	26,168,315	1,344,619,685	154,566,599	197,600	1,498,988,684	10.30
1911	1,619,005,000	70,199,298	1,548,805,702	95,319,730	.....	1,644,125,432	5.80
1912	1,756,070,000	181,899,366	1,574,170,634	6,613,253	383,203	1,580,400,684	.39
1913	2,157,055,000	164,362,281	1,992,692,719	28,344,243	12,654	2,021,024,308	1.40
1914	1,845,130,000	105,899,762	1,739,230,238	48,877,947	7,150	1,788,101,035	2.73
1915	2,085,980,000	179,221,644	1,906,758,356	10,642,237	649,914	1,916,750,679	.52
1916	2,365,295,700	516,257,473	1,849,038,227	1,796,853	7,321	1,850,827,759	.10
1917	2,766,401,227	521,861,259	2,244,539,968	1,370,462	11,889	2,245,898,541	.06

[1] Production is of the calendar year preceding the fiscal year.
[2] Average for the period.

No. 18.—FLAXSEED PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION: QUANTITIES, 1887 TO 1917.

[Source: Production, reports of the Department of Agriculture.]

Year ended June 30—	Production.[1]	Imports.	Exports.		Retained for consumption.
			Domestic seed.	Foreign seed.	
	Bushels.	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*	*Bushels.*
1887–90 [2]	9,937,500	1,912,444	12,986	17	11,836,941
1891	8,500,000	1,515,546	144,848	1	9,870,697
1892	19,000,000	285,140	3,613,187	.....	15,671,953
1893	11,104,440	112,015	1,837,370	.....	9,379,085
1894	10,000,000	592,820	2,047,836	.....	8,544,984
1895	7,500,000	4,166,222	1,224	.....	11,664,998
1896	15,000,000	754,507	80,453	90,478	15,583,576
1897	17,402,000	105,222	4,713,747	19,892	12,773,583
1898	12,500,000	136,098	257,228	2,172	12,376,698
1899	16,400,000	81,953	2,830,991	.....	13,650,962
1900	19,979,492	67,379	2,743,266	.....	17,303,605
1901	17,592,000	1,631,726	2,755,683	21,112	16,446,931
1902	25,319,000	477,157	3,874,033	64,748	21,857,376
1903	29,284,880	129,089	4,128,130	20,211	25,265,628
1904	27,300,510	213,270	758,379	.....	26,755,401
1905	23,400,534	296,184	1,338	3	23,695,377
1906	28,477,753	52,240	5,988,519	.....	22,541,474
1907	25,576,146	90,356	6,636,310	2,044	19,028,148
1908	25,851,000	57,419	4,277,313	11,391	21,619,715
1909	25,805,000	593,668	882,899	.....	25,515,769
1910	19,513,000	5,002,496	65,193	.....	24,450,303
1911	12,718,000	10,499,227	976	.....	23,216,251
1912	19,370,000	6,841,806	4,323	21,919	26,185,564
1913	28,073,000	5,294,296	16,894	168	33,350,234
1914	17,853,000	8,653,235	305,546	.....	26,200,689
1915	13,749,000	10,666,215	4,145	63,208	24,347,862
1916	14,030,000	14,679,233	2,614	17	28,706,602
1917	14,296,000	12,393,988	1,017	.....	26,688,971

[1] Production is of the crop year preceding the fiscal year.
[2] Average for the period.

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
WILLIAM C. REDFIELD, Secretary
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—NO. 73

ECONOMIC RECONSTRUCTION

ANALYSIS OF MAIN TENDENCIES IN THE PRINCIPAL BELLIGERENT COUNTRIES OF EUROPE

WITH

STATISTICS OF PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, AND TRADE IN IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1918

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, July 1, 1918.

SIR: There is submitted herewith a summary report on tendencies in preparations for reconstruction and after-war trade in foreign countries. As you know, we have received a considerable amount of material on this subject from our representatives abroad, and in order to go over the ground we have covered in our numerous conferences on this subject I have, in response to your suggestion, had this material collated and put in its present shape by our Division of Foreign Tariffs and Research Division. These divisions will continue to classify data received with reference to developments in this field, and I shall submit further reports as they may seem necessary. The text is supplemented by certain tables showing the production, trade, and consumption of 40 of the principal commodities for which there is likely to be an abnormal demand during the period immediately following the conclusion of peace. For ready reference there have also been added the text of the resolutions of the Paris Economic Conference, a summary of the report of the British Committee on Commercial and Industrial Policy after the War, and other such pertinent material.

The tendencies, as well as some of the measures already adopted or under serious consideration, are discussed in more or less detail in the attached report, and a separate section is given to preparations for the restoration of trade, industry, and shipping on the part of the foreign Governments, as well as of private organizations.

The outstanding fact under observation is the recognition in every land and by all statesmen of the problem called "economic reconstruction." But of more immediate importance is the fact that England, France, Italy, Germany, and Austria are making preparations to resume their peaceful economic life, with improved facilities for foreign trade, with a national supervision of the use of natural resources for the benefit of their own citizens, and with assistance from the State.

While I realize that many plans advocated or adopted in the foreign countries are unsuitable or even unnecessary for the United States, I feel impelled to point out that those plans might involve

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prejudice to the interests of the United States in foreign fields if they should be administered in a narrow spirit or if the United States should fail to make plain its own interest in them. Although the various countries will, for a while, undoubtedly work toward economic self-sufficiency and toward the elimination of enemy interests in the exploitation of their resources, it is essential that each of the Allied countries should frame its program and the administration of its program with full realization of the extent to which the interests of all the other Allied countries are involved. We have no reason to anticipate a purely selfish spirit on the part of any of our Allies. It is quite natural, inevitable really, that they should plan as soon as possible to recover their industrial, commercial, and financial equilibrium. It is for us, however, to stand ready to enter, at the proper moment, upon an understanding which will show our appreciation of the community of interest in the larger aspects of trade and economic intercourse after the war, and which will be in harmony with the motives underlying our participation in the war.

It may not be out of place to point out that our own Government has already put certain laws on the statute books which will prove of great assistance in the after-war period, and that many of our Government offices have done much, either directly or indirectly, in contemplation of the reconstruction period. The Government's greatest preparation for after-war trade is the construction and organization of a large merchant navy, backed by large and efficient shipyards and dry docks. We have, of course, the Webb-Pomerene Bill, authorizing our exporters to combine for foreign-trade purposes. Our Federal Reserve Board and banking system have wide leeway in foreign-trade banking matters and are alive to the needs of our trade and are meeting them. We have now our Federal Board for Vocational Education, working on problems that are at the very base of our reconstruction work. The War Department also has devoted attention to the future of crippled soldiers. The Department of Labor is contributing to numerous aspects of the after-war problems; the valuable services now being rendered to make the labor supply more mobile and correspond to industrial needs will undoubtedly continue during the reconstruction period. In the Department of Agriculture, and very notably in the Bureau of Mines and the Geological Survey in the Department of the Interior, no less than in the Bureau of Standards and the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce in this Department, important steps have been taken in scientific work and research in preparation for the future.

This Bureau has a far better information service concerning materials, markets, and legislation and economic conditions in foreign countries than ever before. The foreign staff of commercial attachés, trade commissioners, commercial agents, and special agents has been

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expanded, and we are now able to supply commercial and economic information with reference to Europe and the Far East—thanks to the ready appropriation by Congress of a special fund for Far Eastern work—that will approach the well-organized information service which we have had relative to South and Central America. This foreign commercial staff should now be even more increased. Published reports on German Foreign-Trade Organization, on German Trade and the War, tariff policies, and trade restrictions, and extensive research with reference to raw materials and the commerce of foreign countries have been leading features of the Bureau's work for the last two years. Similarly, the United States Shipping Board, the War Trade Board, and the War Industries Board have done statistical research, particularly with reference to commodities for war purposes, which can not but be of value in organizing a national after-war program. In our own office we have continuously published in Commerce Reports material with reference to the reconstruction work of foreign countries. The State Department has long been engaged in drafting commercial treaties—work to which the comparatively new United States Tariff Commission is substantially contributing. The Tariff Commission is also doing important work in its recognized field of surveying various American industries with a view to ascertaining their tariff needs. All told, there has been a very considerable amount of quiet and effective work done looking toward the future.

In England, judging from present comments on the work of the Committee on Commercial and Industrial Policy after the War, any present attempt to lay down complete and binding policies regarding the future is now being recognized as a waste of effort. What is important now is the assembling of facts, taking the basic steps to improve our educational, research, and promotive organizations and contributing to clear thinking as to the questions involved. Sooner or later we must have a definite program in which work done and plans for the future based on known conditions affecting our future may be coordinated. I personally feel that the time is now ripe for some more centralized, concerted work to that end.

Finally, I can not emphasize too strongly the importance of placing the direction of this work in a Government office whose functions are decidedly constructive. A constant sense of economic responsibility is required in the minds of those officials who shall seek to lead the Nation successfully out of this world struggle.

Respectfully,

BURWELL S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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ECONOMIC RECONSTRUCTION.

I. INTRODUCTION.

One of the most remarkable features of the present world conflict is the emphasis laid on economic factors, not only those directly involved in the carrying on of war operations, but also those bearing on the régime which is to prevail during the period of reconstruction and thereafter. While the tendency to consider such factors as retaliatory weapons is now far less pronounced than it was during the period of the Paris Economic Conference, it is safe to say that there is hardly a belligerent country of any commercial or industrial importance that is not giving serious attention to the economic problems that will arise after the conclusion of peace. The plans formulated by the various countries are naturally subject to modification in accordance with the duration and outcome of the war, and it may be doubted whether some of the more ambitious schemes will ever be carried out or be found adapted to the conditions of the period for which they are intended.

There are, however, certain well-defined tendencies in the preparations made by the more important countries, and some parts of their programs have received official sanction or have been adopted in the form of legislative measures. It may, therefore, be found profitable to examine the more advanced plans, with a view to their possible adaptation to the solution of some of the economic problems that we ourselves may have to meet after the conclusion of peace. In view of the necessity of limiting the size of the present report, no attempt will be made to examine the numerous plans advanced for the solution of the purely financial and social questions that will arise from the war, unless they have a direct bearing on the future commercial or industrial policies of the countries involved. The same reason makes it necessary to leave out of consideration some economic plans that are obviously outside of the realm of practical economics, however interesting they may be from the standpoint of war psychology.

EXTENSION OF GOVERNMENT PARTICIPATION IN TRADE AND INDUSTRY.

There seems to be a practically unanimous opinion that the war will bring about a great extension in Government control of, or

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participation in trade and industry in the belligerent countries. Even in circles where such extension of Government powers is regarded as harmful, there is to be noted an implied admission of its inevitability, not only for the period of reconstruction, when it may be necessary for the protection of industry and commerce from a too sudden transition to normal existence, but also as a part of the normal economic life of the country. This is due largely to the realization that the ordinary sources of revenue will be insufficient to bear the enormous fiscal burden and that the Government will have to go into business to pay for the war. The old objections to a Government monopoly have lost some of their strength, partly on account of the recent tendencies toward combinations under private control, and also because of the anticipated need of industry and trade during the period of readjustment after the war, while the results of Government control during the war may serve to disarm to some extent those who would otherwise be inclined to oppose the plan on the ground of inefficiency as an inevitable concomitant of Government control. The movement toward greater Government participation in business may also be regarded as a reflection of the anticipated increase in the political strength of the labor element as a result of the war. It is interesting to note that this movement is meeting with some approval on the part of the German Agrarians, who are not unwilling to see the influence of the industrial and commercial interests weakened by Government control.

ECONOMIC SELF-SUFFICIENCY AND NATIONAL CONTROL OF ESSENTIAL PRODUCTS.

The extension of Government functions in the economic field is intimately connected with two other ideas which owe their present prominence, if not their origin, to the war. These are (1) economic self-sufficiency as a political necessity, and (2) national control of important raw materials and other essential products. Both are receiving particular attention in Great Britain and Germany, in the former because of the great extent of the natural wealth in the British Empire, and in the latter on account of the comparative lack of such raw materials and products in Germany or even in central Europe.

The war seems to have brought out the fact that the control of an essential product by a country may be converted into a valuable political asset and that political contingencies may make it necessary to keep such a product out of the influence of free economic laws. If such control should be found necessary after the war, it is almost inevitable that it should be entrusted to the Government; and if it should produce increased profits, it is reasoned by some, the Government should receive at least a good share of such profits, to be

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applied to meeting the obligations entailed by the war and the various schemes for social betterment.

While these ideas may be regarded as a natural war reaction from the strong tendency toward economic interdependence which characterized the period before the war, it is safe to predict that they will last sufficiently long after the conclusion of the war to affect the economic legislation of the belligerent countries during the period of reconstruction.

ECONOMIC ALLIANCES.

The emphasis laid on the economic phases of the war has led to the proposal that the present political alliances should be supplemented by agreements calculated to mobilize the economic strength of the opposing sides for the benefit of the Allied countries and against their enemies. This proposal found expression in the Economic Conference of the Allied Governments (see p. 61), which met in Paris on June 14–17, 1916, and in the strong agitation for an economic alliance of the Central Powers, particularly between Germany and Austria-Hungary. The entry of the United States into the war and the political developments in Russia would seem to have modified the original plans for discrimination after the war, and in Great Britain, where the subject is still prominent in public discussion, it is usually connected with the reconstruction plans of the British Empire. Among the Central Powers, an economic union between Germany and Austria-Hungary is regarded as almost a foregone conclusion by many economists and publicists in both countries, although there has developed considerable opposition on the part of the commercial interests, particularly those connected with the Baltic ports and Hamburg, as well as by Agrarians in Bavaria. Opposition to the union has also been announced by certain interests in Austria-Hungary.

PREPARATIONS FOR THE AFTER-WAR PERIOD.

Along with the plans for a wider participation by the Government in the economic activities of the country, there are noticeable some very ambitious plans for after-war trade and industry among private organizations, concurrent with changes in the Government administrative machinery to promote such plans. This tendency will be found in the movement toward concentration in industry and finance in Germany and in Great Britain, in the establishment of new departments of commerce in the two countries, the Ministry of Reconstruction in Great Britain, and of a similar department in Germany. Plans for the reorganization of the consular service and technical education in Great Britain, the extension of waterways in France, Germany, and Austria-Hungary, reorganization of credit in-

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try or trade which they are to serve, and, while they are not to engage in business as a general rule, in some cases it may be found necessary to attach a business section.

In regard to the control of tonnage, it is the intention of the Government to interfere as little as possible with the business methods of the shipping firms, but German tonnage will be reserved principally for essential imports, the degree of urgency of demand to be the determining factor in the allotment of shipping space to various products. This control is to be exercised through an organization representing the shipping firms and entrusted by law with the exercise of certain functions in regard to the use of ships and the sanction of charters. The Government is to be represented by an expert commissioner from the Ministry of Economics. The plan also calls for State intervention in the matter of freight rates.

The organization of the textile industry during the reconstruction period is outlined in the order of the Federal Council of June 27, which went into effect immediately. The plan provides for an Imperial Office for Textile Administration, under the Ministry of Economics, which is to supervise and coordinate the work of the separate Imperial economic offices (Reichswirtschaftsstellen) to be established for each of the following divisions of the textile industry: Cotton, wool, silk, artificial textile fibers and waste, flax (including ramie), hemp (European), jute, hard fibers (non-European hemp and coconut fiber), and substitute textile materials (paper and cellulose yarns). The Imperial Office is to consist of a chairman, one or more deputy chairmen, and at least one member from each of the subordinate economic offices, all to be nominated by the Imperial Chancellor; and is to have, in addition, representatives of the industries involved, in such numbers as may be determined by the Imperial Chancellor. The functions of the main body will be to regulate, under instructions from the Imperial Chancellor, the purchase, distribution, manufacturing, warehousing, sale, consumption, and prices of textile raw materials, semimanufactures, and finished products. Each subordinate economic office is to consist of an assembly and an executive committee. The assembly is to be made up of the various interests concerned in the particular industry, including labor, wholesale and retail trade, and employees, to be nominated by the Imperial Chancellor on the proposal of the organizations representing the various interests. The executive committee is to be chosen by the assembly, the number of members to be determined by the Imperial Chancellor. The Imperial Office and the subordinate economic offices are to have their headquarters in Berlin, but the Imperial Chancellor may order or sanction the establishment of branch offices in other places, while the constituent states may establish, with the sanction of the Imperial Chancellor, state offices for textile administration, as executive organs of the Imperial Office.

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The commercial interests of Germany seem to be perturbed over the Government plans for the reconstruction period. The central organization of the German wholesale trade has started a propaganda for the protection of that trade after the war. The Hamburg Chamber of Commerce has addressed a memorial to the Imperial Commissioner for Transition Economy, demanding that commerce be restored to its former position and afforded facilities for resuming its old connections. At a special meeting called by the chamber about the middle of 1917, fear was expressed that in the reconstruction program commerce may be subordinated to industry. The Bavarian Chamber of Commerce at a special meeting about the same time adopted resolutions calling for a brief transition period, early winding up of war organizations, and the introduction of monopolies only for fiscal reasons. The Hansa-Bund has recently adopted a resolution opposing any Government interference in commerce and industry.

In the scheme for reconstruction presented to the Reichstag by the trade-unions in June, 1917, a recommendation was made for State control of all imports and exports during the transition period and the distribution of raw materials through the war organizations.

ALLIED PLANS.

The attitude of the British Government on the question of State control is indicated in the introduction of the Imports and Exports (Temporary Control) Bill, prepared by the Board of Trade and providing for the continuation of the export and import restrictions adopted during the war for three years after the conclusion of peace. A similar tendency is shown in the recently adopted Nonferrous Metal Industry Act, which invests the Board of Trade with considerable powers for the control of the business in nonferrous metals and ores. While this measure is intended primarily for the elimination of enemy interests, it is undoubtedly a step in the direction of Government control.

Sir Albert Stanley, the president of the Board of Trade, in his speech at the annual meeting of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of the United Kingdom in April, 1918, stated that at the close of the war practically the whole of the trade and industrial activities of the country would in some form be controlled directly or indirectly. It would be the function of the Government at once to begin the abandonment of those controls when the national position would permit. He did not, however, see how it was possible in the national interests that the railways and canals should revert to their pre-war state.

The final report of the Committee on Commercial and Industrial Policy after the War, appointed to consider the conclusions of the

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Paris Economic Conference, contains recommendations for the continuation, for a period of at least 12 months after the conclusion of the war, of the present prohibition against enemy imports and for legislation empowering the Government to control the exports of certain essential raw materials.

In Great Britain the commercial interests, with their tradition of individualism, have been decidedly pronounced in their criticism of the Government not only for its reconstruction program, but also for its economic policy during the war. A report adopted by the London Chamber of Commerce in July, 1917, criticizes the Government for its methods in controlling the import trade during the war and for its failure to cooperate with the business interests. The official organ of the London Chamber of Commerce has pointed out on many occasions the necessity of warning the public and the Government against the danger of "perpetuating after the war the methods of expediency which may have been justified during the war." In Great Britain, also, there seems to be a general fear that the middleman may be eliminated from the economic structure of the country after the war. Similar criticism against the Government was voiced in a recent report of a special subcommittee of the Commercial Committee of the House of Commons, and at the recent meeting of the Imperial Association of Commerce, whose main object is to free individual enterprise in British commerce from excessive State control.

The attitude of organized labor in Great Britain is naturally in favor of a considerable degree of Government control, and a recent draft report on reconstruction issued by the newly formed Labor Party calls for immediate nationalization of railways, mines, and the production of electrical power, and the continuation of Government control of commerce and industry introduced during the war.

In France the subject has been generally restricted to the establishment of monopolies, which will be discussed in the part dealing with permanent control. In the other belligerent countries there does not seem to have been much public discussion of the subject.

GOVERNMENT MONOPOLIES.

The second phase of participation in economic life—permanent Government control—has been practically narrowed down to the establishment of monopolies, which to many economists and publicists in Germany and France seems to be the most logical way of obtaining the enormous revenue that will be needed to meet the financial obligations created by the war. In those countries, with their centralized and more or less paternalistic form of government, State monopolies appear merely as a further step in the direction of State control as exercised in the emergency of war. The advocates of

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State monopolization point to the benefits derived by consumers during the war as a result of Government interference with the free economic laws and maintain that under normal conditions the Government control would be still more successful. The opponents of this form of State activity naturally regard the Government economic policy during the war as a necessary evil which should not be tolerated a minute longer than is absolutely necessary.

The subject of State monopolies is receiving serious consideration from German economists and officials, and while there is some diversity of opinion as to the articles to be monopolized and the phase of production or distribution at which the Government is to step in, there is practical unanimity as to the need of monopolies for the solution of the fiscal problems that will confront the nation after the war.

In a series of articles on the subject which appeared during 1917 in the Europäische Staats- und Wirtschaftszeitung, Prof. Ballod estimates at 5,000,000,000 marks the amount of annual revenue to be derived from the following monopolies: Tobacco, spirits, beer, sugar, tea, coffee, cocoa, coal and electricity, nitrates, bread, meat, and exploitation of colonial labor. The last item, which is to bring in 1,000,000,000 marks annually, is to take the form of forced labor for a period of four years, to take the place of military service for the natives. Prof. Ballod does not mention the petroleum monopoly, which had practically been decided upon before the outbreak of the war, nor the grain monopoly, which had been advocated by the Agrarians for many years. A bill establishing an imperial spirit monopoly has been laid before the Reichstag in connection with the budget for 1918, and it is estimated that the monopoly will yield an additional revenue of 648,000,000 marks for the year, at the rate of 800 marks per hectoliter of alcohol produced.

One of the most interesting facts in connection with the proposal of monopolies is its advocacy by the conservative Agrarians, as evidenced by a recent statement of Count Posadowsky in the Reichstag, in which he came out in favor of monopolies and against capital levies. It is possible that the favorable attitude of the Agrarians is due not only to their desire to forestall a levy on capital but also to their traditional opposition to the growing influence of the industrial and commercial interests, which would naturally be weakened by Government control.

Aside from advocating monoplies merely as sources of revenue, there is a tendency on the part of some German economists to favor a monopoly of the importation of raw materials as a means of mobilizing the purchasing capacity of the country to counteract economic discrimination. It is also claimed that such a monopoly

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would be a considerable source of revenue, which might be obtained by depressing the purchase price abroad and raising the selling price at home. Other advantages claimed for this form of monopoly are that it would affect only the import trade, leaving undisturbed the internal trade, and that there are no large vested interests involved for the Government to indemnify.

In France the establishment of additional monopolies would be merely an expansion of an old policy, as exemplified by the existing monopolies of manufacture and sale of tobacco and matches and the long agitation for a monopoly on spirits, for fiscal as well as social reasons. The monopolies which have been advocated by some members of Parliament as best adapted to French conditions are those of sugar, spirits, and petroleum. The traditional interest of the French Government in the sugar industry and the probability that the Government will be called upon to assist its restoration in the invaded regions, where it was most highly developed, are given as arguments in favor of monopolization. In the case of spirits, a Government monopoly is regarded as a foregone conclusion, as shown by the recent discussion in Parliament of a bill providing for such a monopoly. The petroleum monopoly is believed to present the fewest difficulties, as it is simply a question of taking over the highly concentrated import trade and refining industry. This monopoly is also advocated as supplementary to the alcohol monopoly, as it could be used to encourage the use of alcohol for industrial purposes. Another monopoly that is advocated as offering considerable revenue with very few administrative difficulties is that of insurance, which is regarded by some as a State function and its administration as well adapted to a bureaucratic régime.

In Great Britain, with few exceptions, the establishment of Government monopolies has so far apparently received favorable consideration only from the labor element and the more advanced social reformers. One of the exceptions concerns petroleum, in the case of which it is believed that the Government participation in the exploitation of the Persian oil fields for national reasons may develop into a modified monopoly of the whole trade.

III. ECONOMIC SELF-SUFFICIENCY AND NATIONAL CONTROL OF ESSENTIAL PRODUCTS.

The war has forced many of the belligerent countries to realize the interdependence of nations involved in modern industrial life. It has also brought out clearly the fact that under modern conditions of industrial specialization a country as industrially developed as Great Britain may depend on a foreign country for finished products made out of raw material obtained from British possessions. While this has been known for many years, the war has emphasized the

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fact that industrial specialization is not without its drawbacks in time of national emergency and has given rise to a rather pronounced movement for economic self-sufficiency, especially in Great Britain and in Germany. The various trade restrictions, such as export embargoes and import prohibitions, adopted during the war, have also served to emphasize the political importance of the control of essential products and have gradually developed an agitation for the national control of such products after the war. In the resolutions of the Paris Economic Conference the Allies declared their determination to grant to each other a prior claim on materials needed for reconstruction and to conserve for the allied countries, before all others, their natural resources during the whole period of reconstruction.

MOVEMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN.

In order to carry out the recommendations of the Paris Conference, the British Government appointed, in July, 1916, the Committee on Commercial and Industrial Policy after the War, which has just made its final report. (See Appendix, p. 63.) The recommendations of the committee regarding the control of essential products are to the effect that while a general embargo on exports to enemy countries after the war or a continuation of the present system of rationing neutrals would be impracticable and inexpedient, a policy of joint control by the British Empire and the Allies during the transition period of the exports of certain products might be adopted for the purpose of carrying out the resolutions of the Paris Conference. The products especially singled out are cotton and cotton yarns; wool, tops, and yarn; jute; coal; oil seeds and nuts; hides and tanning materials; flax; hemp; and timber. In the course of its investigation the committee also looked into the question of the development of the resources of the Empire and of preventing the foreign control of such resources, this being one of the principal subjects of the comprehensive investigation carried on by the Dominions Royal Commission. On this point the Committee on Commercial and Industrial Policy after the War fully agrees with the suggestion of the Royal Commission for the establishment of some department to collect information about the requirements of the Empire as regards essential products and their actual and potential output, to serve as a basis for a coordinated policy of the utilization of the imperial resources. The committee does not, however, follow the commission in its recommendation for the establishment of an imperial development board, consisting of representatives of all parts of the British Empire, which should supervise and elaborate the various schemes for imperial development. The committee doubts the practicability of the plan and suggests that more rapid progress would be made

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by dealing separately with special commodities or groups of commodities.

As an instance of the plans of the British Government for the control of national resources may be cited the recent agreement with the Australian Government for the control of the whole output of zinc concentrates for the period of the war and 10 years thereafter. By the new arrangement, the British Government is to take the stock of zinc concentrates on hand December 31, 1917, less a definite percentage reserve, and thereafter 250,000 tons per annum for the period of the war and one year thereafter, and 300,000 tons annually for the succeeding nine years. The British Government also secures an option on the balance of production, subject to certain reservations, such as the requirements of the Australian zinc refining works and the fulfillment of existing contracts. Attention may also be called to the action of the British Government in regard to the control of the colonial output of wool, jute, and cotton.

Paralleling the movement for self-sufficiency in respect to essential raw materials and foodstuffs, there is also a pronounced tendency among certain classes in Great Britain toward a policy of protection, temporary at least, for certain industries engaged in the manufacture of essential products, the so-called "key" industries. While this tendency is a direct result of the shutting off of imports of certain German products, like dyestuffs, chemical and pharmaceutical products, magnetos, etc., highly essential to British industries and military preparations, it may also be regarded as a phase of tariff agitation, more or less closely connected with the older movement for tariff reform and imperial preference. Early in the war a number of definite proposals for tariff protection for certain industries developed or extended during the war were made by some prominent organizations, notably the Advisory Committee to the Board of Trade, in the report presented in January, 1916, the Association of Chambers of Commerce of the United Kingdom, at their annual meetings in 1916 and 1917, and the London Chamber of Commerce, at a special meeting in May, 1916. The Imperial War Conference, which met in London early in 1917, adopted a resolution in favor of measures for rendering the Empire independent of foreign countries in respect to raw materials, food supplies, and essential industries, and of specially favorable treatment among the constituent parts of the Empire.

In this connection it is worth examining the recommendations on the subject contained in the final report of the Committee on Commercial and Industrial Policy after the War. The conclusions reached by the Committee in regard to the future fiscal policy of Great Britain are that (1) British producers are entitled to be protected against dumping and the importation of "sweated" goods;

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(2) "key" and "pivotal" industries should be maintained at all hazards and at any expense; (3) protection for other industries, by tariff or Government assistance, should be restricted to cases involving national safety or the safeguarding of an important industry against injury by foreign competition or against foreign control; (4) preference for British dominions and possessions should form a part of any duties now or hereafter to be imposed in the United Kingdom and consideration should be given to other forms of imperial preference; (5) the denunciation of existing commercial treaties with Allies and neutral countries is unnecessary and inexpedient, but consideration should be given to the possibility of utilizing for purposes of negotiation any duties which may be imposed in accordance with the other recommendations. It is interesting to note that according to a recent statement in Parliament by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Great Britain intends to follow the policy of France in denouncing all commercial treaties providing for most-favored-nation treatment. This action would leave the Government free to introduce the policy of preference for colonial products in the British market. It should also be pointed out that some members of the committee signed the report with certain reservations, one of the minority reports being in favor of a general tariff of 10 per cent ad valorem, which would make it possible to grant preferential concessions to the dominions, negotiate commercial arrangements with the Allies, and bargain with neutral countries. Another minority report, made by one member of the committee, voices opposition to protection for staple industries.

The recent statement of Sir Albert Stanley, the President of the Board of Trade, at a meeting of dye users in Manchester to the effect that the Government has decided to prohibit the importation of all foreign dyes, except under license, for a period of at least 10 years, is a striking illustration of the new tendencies in British commercial policy.

ATTITUDE OF OTHER ALLIED COUNTRIES AND CENTRAL POWERS.

Among the other Allied countries the movement for economic readjustment, with self-sufficiency as an ideal, is far less pronounced than it is in Great Britain, which is to be expected, considering the disparity in material resources and economic development. In France, where the restoration of the invaded regions will be the most urgent problem after the conclusion of peace, there seems to be a clear realization that the country will not be in a position to engage in any comprehensive plans of economic reconstruction. Some attention is being given to the necessity of further development of water-power resources, to supplement the deficiency in coal, and it is possible that a more energetic development of the colonies will

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be inaugurated after the war. There is also a possibility of more direct encouragement to agriculture, although under normal conditions France is nearly self-sufficient as regards the principal foodstuffs. No definite plans have so far been announced by Italy, while the internal problems of Belgium and Russia may preclude any clear program of economic expansion for years after the conclusion of the war.

Among the Central Powers, or rather in Germany, the subject of economic self-sufficiency is one of the most absorbing topics in the press and is generally advanced as one of the principal arguments in favor of a Central European economic alliance. It should be pointed out that in Germany the economic policy of the Government, particularly as regards agrarian protection, has been influenced by considerations of national safety for a good many years, and the experience of the war will probably be regarded, especially by the Agrarians, as a clear vindication of that policy. Some rather prominent German economists and publicists are clearly overestimating the capacity of Germany to achieve economic independence with the aid of her allies, and their views, as expressed in the economic press, are evidently dictated by political exigencies rather than by sound economics. It is quite evident that some of the plans advanced, such as the piling up of reserve supplies of foodstuffs and raw materials for national emergencies and the continued use of substitutes after the war, are dictated by fear of economic discrimination on the part of the Allies and are undoubtedly subject to modification in accordance with the terms of peace.

The commercial interests are naturally opposed to the ideal of a self-contained state, and it is pointed out by some economic writers that this ideal could have been attained without the war and that if after the war Germany should be forced to pursue a policy of economic self-sufficiency it would be not only a confession of failure to achieve the aims of the war, but also an admission that Germany had been pursuing a false foreign policy since the establishment of the Empire. It would also mean a lower standard of life for a considerable part of the population, as well as a weakening of Germany's position as a shipping nation.

The national control of the trade in German essential products is generally regarded as an indispensable part of the plan for obtaining after the war supplies of raw materials controlled by present enemy countries, although it is realized by some writers that the industrial progress achieved by some of the Allied countries during the war may have weakened considerably the position occupied by some of the German industrial monopolies before the war—dyestuffs, for example.

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IV. ECONOMIC ALLIANCES.

MOVEMENT IN ALLIED COUNTRIES.

The movement in favor of an economic alliance between the Allies, which culminated in the Paris Economic Conference of June, 1916, was based to some extent on political sentiment, and the resolutions adopted, calling for economic discrimination against the Central Powers and mutual preferential treatment among the Allies, were received rather critically by the free-trade press in England, by some prominent economists and trade organizations in France, and also in Russia and Italy, whose economic interests had been bound up closely with the Central Powers. In a formal statement on the Conference in Parliament in August, 1916, Mr. Asquith mentioned two main objects, on the part of the British Government, in joining the Conference. One was to convince the enemy of the unity of the Allies in economic as well as in military matters, and the other to make such preparations for the period after the conclusion of peace as seemed essential to the Allies in view of the known attitude and will of Germany.

It will be recalled that the resolutions adopted at the Conference (see Appendix, p. 61) were divided into three parts: (1) Measures for the war period; (2) measures for the period of reconstruction; and (3) more permanent measures of mutual assistance and collaboration among the Allies. The war measures against economic relations with the enemy countries did not differ materially from those already in force. The measures for the reconstruction period, in addition to the conservation of raw products for the benefit of the Allies, referred to on page 19, also called for economic discrimination against the products as well as the subjects of the Central Powers. The permanent measures were to include immediate steps to render the Allies independent of the enemy countries as regards essential raw materials and manufactures, extending also to financial, commercial and maritime organizations. The manner in which these measures were to be carried into effect was to be determined by each country in accordance with the principles governing its economic policy, but it was suggested that it might take the form of Government assistance to national industries and resources, tariff discrimination, or a combination of both.

As pointed out on page 19, the British Government appointed a Committee on Commercial and Industrial Policy after the War, to look into the question of carrying out the recommendations of the Paris Conference. The committee, under the chairmanship of Lord Balfour of Burleigh, has just made its final report (see Appendix, p. 63), and it is interesting to examine its recommendations in regard to commercial relations with the Allies. The committee points

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out that the scope of the permanent measures recommended by the Paris Conference was rather limited and that some very important changes in international relations have taken place since the appointment of the committee, of which the entry of the United States into the war is of the greatest influence. It also calls attention to the fact that between the Allies themselves there are conflicting commercial interests requiring very careful handling, and that while the present political situation should be utilized to promote the British trade relations with the Allies, "it is * * * a question how far a temporary community of political interests—and even the long duration of such a community of interests as we may hope for in some cases—can in itself afford a secure basis for a permanent commercial policy." In other words the committee after an investigation extending over a year has arrived at conclusions regarding the influence of certain economic forces which are practically the same as the arguments advanced against the resolutions of the Paris Conference by such free-trade organs as the London Economist and the Manchester Guardian at the time the resolutions were first announced.

In France where the policy announced by the Paris Conference aroused very great enthusiasm there were also some prominent individuals and organizations who realized the practical impossibility of a boycott against German imports after the war and the harm to French interests that might result from tariff discrimination against that country. We may mention such economists as Charles Gide and Yves Guyot, and organizations like the Fédération des Industriels et Commerçants Français, and the Association Nationale d'Expansion Economique. The Comité Republicain du Commerce, de l'Industrie et de l'Agriculture, in a report on economic reconstruction in France, also quotes opinions from members opposed to economic discrimination against Germany after the war.

ECONOMIC UNION OF CENTRAL POWERS.

While the movement for economic union has thus lost a good deal of its force among the Allies, since the Paris Conference, it has evidently been gaining in strength among the Central Powers, or rather in Germany and Austria-Hungary, as the adherence of Bulgaria and Turkey is rather tentative, and there is very little information as to their attitude on the question. The revival of the movement for an economic union between Germany and Austria-Hungary since the beginning of the war may be attributed to the economic isolation of the Central Powers, the fear of economic discrimination after the war, and probably also to a desire on the part of Germany for a formal recognition of her economic domination in the Dual Monarchy, which has been immeasurably intensified by the war. This,

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of course, does not take account of the more remote historical causes, which can not be discussed adequately in the present report. Without minimizing the very considerable political, economic, social, and racial difficulties to be adjusted, it may be stated as a practical certainty that in the absence of any radical changes in the political situation of Germany and Austria-Hungary the war will bring about a very close economic union between them. So much of the voluminous German literature on the subject is favorable to the plan that one is led to suspect official inspiration. It is remarkable that even the more prominent German economists, who show a rather contemptuous attitude toward Naumann's[1] lyrical treatment of the subject, are willing to gloss over many of the economic difficulties and are, perhaps unconsciously, overestimating the economic benefits to be derived, particularly as regards supplies of raw materials and markets for German manufactures.

It may be worth pointing out the chief economic advantages claimed for the union between the two countries. It is argued that the two countries must combine for the purpose of resisting the economic pressure and discrimination of the Allies after the war and in order to obtain better terms in the negotiation of commercial treaties. German capital, the Germans predict, which will probably be kept out of the countries controlled by the Allies for some years to come, will flow into Austria-Hungary and develop the natural resources and industries of that country. Greater specialization and the assurance of a wider market by preferential tariff treatment, it is claimed, will make it possible to introduce large-scale methods in some of the industries of the Dual Monarchy, while the opening of the large German market for foodstuffs will have a stimulating effect on the agriculture of that country and lead to the adoption of the more progressive methods characterizing German agriculture. Germany would profit from the increase of its prestige in the Near East and utilize and improve the Danube and the canals which join that river with the Rhine system in the commercial exploitation of that region.

The difficulties presented by the disparity in the industrial development of the two countries are to be overcome by a temporary tariff and the use of cartels to restrict competition within certain zones. The general attitude of the German writers seems to be that Austria-Hungary is a country with great possibilities in industry and agriculture, but that it needs German energy and initiative, as well as German capital, for its full development.

While there seems to be a strong movement in favor of the union, both in Germany and in Austria-Hungary, there is also considerable

[1] Author of Mittel-Europa.

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opposition on the part of important interests in both countries. In Germany it is voiced by the agrarian interests of Bavaria, which ar the competition of Hungarian grain and flour, and by influtial commercial interests, particularly those of Hamburg. The amburg Chamber of Commerce recently addressed a petition to e Reichstag warning against the union, which might interfere th the conclusion of commercial treaties with other countries and aken Germany's commercial position in the world markets. In Austria-Hungary the situation is much more complicated and e opposition somewhat stronger. There is the hostile attitude of e non-German elements, who are naturally opposed to any addin to the strength of the German minority. There is also the ar of the competition of the strong German industries, which ould be particularly menacing to the industrial ambitions of Hun- ry. There is, finally, a general suspicion that Germany might y to introduce a division of economic spheres of activity by which ustria-Hungary would be restricted to the less profitable task of oviding agricultural products, while Germany would monopolize e industrial field.

The rather loose economic and political ties between the two parts the Dual Monarchy introduce a still further complication, and e favorable attitude of the strong Hungarian milling interests is sed largely on the expectation of the free admission of Hungarian ur into Germany, which is being opposed by the Bavarian millers. here are also the problems of adjusting the differences in the legal stems of the two countries, the currency question, and the task of reparing a tariff measure adapted to the unequal economic condi- ons of the two countries.

Formal negotiations for an economic union between the countries, take the place of the commercial treaty which was to expire at he end of 1917, have been carried on for several years, and resolu- ons in favor of such a union have been adopted by a number of conomic organizations since early in 1915, the most active in the ovement being the German-Austro-Hungarian Economic Association, and the ation, the Hungarian-German Economic Association. According to announce- erman-Austrian Economic Association. ents in the German press early this year, the draft of a common stoms tariff for the two countries has been completed, and while information is available regarding the character of the alliance nounced in the spring of 1918, it undoubtedly makes some provi- for closer economic relations between the two countries than d have been possible under the old commercial treaty. It is h noting that in the economic appendix to the Brest-Litovsk y, as well as in the German treaties with the Ukraine and nd, there is a provision exempting future German conces-

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sions to Austria-Hungary from the operation of the most-favored-nation clause. A similar provision is contained in the peace treaties of Austria-Hungary with Russia and the Ukraine as regards concessions that might be granted by Austria-Hungary to Germany as a result of a customs union with that country.

V. PREPARATIONS FOR THE AFTER-WAR PERIOD.

Plans for trade and industry after the conclusion of peace have engaged the attention of the Governments and of the industrial and commercial interests of the more important belligerent countries practically since the beginning of the war. It would seem as if the war, by disturbing the established mechanism of production and distribution in the most important countries of Europe, gave them an opportunity to make a careful examination of their economic structure and to make the necessary improvements. As the war progressed there has developed the general impression that the economic régime after the war will be fundamentally different from the old individualistic system and that it will require new facilities and organs for its proper operation. Thus, we find that in two of the most important belligerent countries of Europe—Great Britain and Germany—there are two parallel movements in the work of preparation: The Government is creating new instruments or overhauling the old in order to be ready to meet the new conditions created by the war, and private organizations in commerce, industry, and finance are getting closer together and coordinating their efforts, so as to present a solid front to the anticipated onslaught of their chief rivals. The subject is too extensive for detailed treatment, and we shall have to confine ourselves to a mere outline of the more definite plans or results in the more important belligerent countries.

GREAT BRITAIN.

GOVERNMENT POLICY.

The British Government has analyzed the problems to be met after the conclusion of peace and has taken steps to reorganize its machinery to meet the new conditions.

Department of Overseas Trade (Development and Intelligence).—One of the most important actions of the British Government was the reorganization of the Board of Trade, the British Government department which, among other powers, exercises those intrusted to the Department of Commerce in the United States, and particularly the establishment of the Department of Overseas Trade (Development and Intelligence), which is a joint department of the Board of Trade and the Foreign Office and corresponds in its functions to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the Department of Commerce. The new department is a substitute for a sepa-

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Ministry of Commerce, for which there has been a considerable
tion, especially on the part of the Associated Chambers of
merce of the United Kingdom, and has under its jurisdiction
trade commissioner service, the commercial attaché service, and
trade matters the consular service, although the consuls are still
of the Foreign Office. The new department has introduced
reforms in the consular service, particularly as regards the com-
and distribution of consular reports, and is planning a
derable extension of the trade commissioner service. The entire
of the Board of Trade has been divided into two main depart-
Department of Commerce and Industry, which is to supply
information, plan and work out national commercial and in-
policies, and otherwise promote trade, while the Department
Public Services Administration is engaged primarily in adminis-
functions of a more permanent nature with regard to trade
transportation, such as harbors, merchant marine, railways,
panies, etc.

Ministry of Reconstruction.—The Ministry of Reconstruction was
anized in July, 1917, to continue for the duration of the war and
a period of two years or less after its conclusion. The new
istry took over the work previously in charge of the Recon-
uction Committee under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister,
ated in March, 1917. In two speeches delivered in Parliament
ring the discussion of the bill creating the new ministry, by the
ome Secretary and the Solicitor General, respectively, and in the
eport on the War Cabinet for the year 1917, it was stated that the
unctions of the new ministry were to be advisory and would be
xercised in cooperation with other departments, and that it would
e the duty of the new Minister to coordinate and bring together
he contributions of the various departments on the subject of
econstruction, to study them in their bearings upon each other, to
nitiate proposals for dealing with matters which are not already
overed, and out of all this material to build up, in consultation
ith other departments, for submission to the War Cabinet, and
ltimately to Parliament, a reasoned policy of reconstruction in all
s branches.

For administrative purposes the Ministry is divided into branches
aling with commerce and production, including the supply of
aterials; with finance, shipping, and common services; with labor
d industrial organization; with rural development; with the ma-
nery of government, central and local; with health and education;
with housing and internal transportation. The ministry is
ted in its work by an advisory council representative of all the
g interests concerned in reconstruction and divided into sec-
hich are so arranged that the membership of each section

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is representative of the principal interests represented in the advisory council. The work of the ministry is done largely by committees in cooperation with the departments chiefly concerned in the subjects under investigation. Some of the questions investigated or under investigation by the branch dealing with commerce and production are as follows: The supply and control of raw materials after the war; financial facilities for British commerce after the war; the preservation of essential industries; trusts and combinations; establishment of new industries after the war, the volume and nature of the demand for British goods after the war; and improvements in trade organizations for the purpose of more economical production, distribution and marketing.

Under the branch dealing with finance, shipping and common services, there is a section of the advisory council working on the problem of disposal of Government stores. This problem is regarded of the utmost importance, in view of the danger of economic dislocation and waste of public funds that may result from an unsystematized disposal of such products. It has been decided to create a special body to take charge of the work and to act as a selling organization for any Government department having surplus stores to dispose of.

The question of army demobilization has been receiving considerable attention from several departments, and it is now planned to have the War Office and the Ministry of Labor, in conjunction with the Ministry of Reconstruction, determine the priority of demobilization for the different trades on the basis of the information obtained by the Ministry of Reconstruction and on the general principle that the essential industries shall be served first.

An important work of the Ministry of Reconstruction consists in the examination of all proposals from a legal point of view, to determine what amendments of the existing law are involved, and of the large volume of emergency measures, with a view to their bearing on the immediate post-war problems and to the situation that may be created by their expiration or repeal.

Patent and trade-mark legislation.—The Board of Trade has introduced two measures providing for far-reaching changes in the trade-mark and patent legislation of Great Britain, which are intended to eliminate some of the abuses on the part of foreign, particularly German, concerns under the existing law. The changes in the patent law include stricter application of the working clause, greater facilities for licensing, and a revocation of the patent for any abuse of patent rights, such as failure to work the patent, or to grant licenses on reasonable terms, whenever the public interest demands, or unfair conditions imposed on the use or sale of the patented article. The principal reforms in the trade-mark law are

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intended to prevent the abuse of words as trade-marks, and to provide facilities for the registration of marks, which, though in use, can not be registered under existing trade-mark legislation.

Companies (Particulars as to Directors) Act.—This act, adopted in 1917, is an extension to companies of the Registration of Business Names Act, 1916, and is designed to compel the registration of the real names and surnames, nationality, nationality of origin, usual residence, and other business occupations of directors of all companies registered in Great Britain or with an established place of business in the country and doing business under names other than their true names.

Technical education.—This subject is under investigation by a number of special committees, such as the Committee on Juvenile Education in Relation to Employment after the War (under the Board of Education), the Committee on the Teaching of Modern Languages (under the Prime Minister), the Committee on the Teaching of Science (under the Prime Minister), the Committee on Principles of Arrangements Determining Salaries of Teachers in Secondary Technical, etc., Schools (under the Board of Education). The pending education bill also deals with the subject of technical education.

In 1915 the Board of Education announced a plan for the establishment of a permanent organization for the promotion of industrial and scientific research, involving the formation of a committee of the Privy Council responsible for the expenditure of any additional money appropriated by Parliament for that purpose, and of a small advisory council, composed mainly of eminent scientists and men actually engaged in industries dependent upon scientific research. The assistance of the Royal Society and of the principal scientific societies and associations was also to be secured for the purpose of initiating proposals for the consideration of the advisory council. At the recommendation of the leading manufacturers the Government obtained from Parliament the grant of the sum of £1,000,000, which is placed with the Imperial Trust for the Encouragement of Scientific and Industrial Research and is to be expended in accordance with the directions of the Committee of the Privy Council for Industrial and Scientific Research, appointed by the Order in Council of July 28, 1915. The department has concluded an agreement with the Royal Society for the transfer of the National Physical Laboratory, has appointed a special board to investigate the problem of fuel economy, and has made a grant for the establishment of a new department of technical optics in the Imperial College of Science and Technology. The investigations of the department are carried on on a cooperative basis as well as independently, and assistance is also [illegible] individual research workers.

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PRIVATE EFFORTS.

Among private organizations the outstanding tendency has been toward cooperation and concentration—policies that are receiving considerable encouragement from the Government, influenced more or less by similar economic tendencies in other countries, particularly in the United States. It is stated that the Board of Trade has sent representatives to some of the industrial centers to arouse interest in combinations for export trade. Some of the Board of Trade committees investigating various industries with a view to determining the changes that it may be necessary to make in their foreign-trade methods after the war have reported in favor of some form of combination or association for export trade for the following industries: Iron and steel, engineering, shipbuilding and marine engineering, electrical, and textile.

Banking amalgamation.—Concentration has been most pronounced among British banks and has aroused some alarm in business circles. At the recent meeting of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of the United Kingdom a resolution was submitted criticising the recent bank amalgamations, but was modified under the influence of Sir Edward Holden, who stated that only big banks would be in a position to stand the gold drain that is bound to set in after the war. The resolution finally adopted approves amalgamations, but recommends that the Board of Trade be given power to guard against injury to commercial interests. The attention of the Chancellor of the Exchequer was called to the matter, and a committee was appointed to investigate it. In its report of May 21, 1918, the committee made a recommendation for legislation providing for a statutory committee representing the Treasury Department and the Board of Trade which should have the authority to pass on proposed amalgamations. The recommendation of the committee has been accepted by the Government, and a standing committee appointed. Some of the institutions figuring in recent amalgamations or rumors of amalgamations are London County and Westminster, Parr's, London City and Midland, London Joint-Stock Bank, London and Southwestern, and London and Provincial. The recent announcements of the London Provincial and Southwestern are of particular importance, as they concern the development of British banking in South America and closer financial connections with the United States. This bank and the British Bank of South America, with branches in Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay, have just made an arrangement to act as agencies for each other. It has also entered into an arrangement with the Irving National Bank of New York to act as its agent in the United Kingdom, while the latter bank is to represent the London Bank in New York. According to a recent

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statement in the London Economist, of the total deposits in English joint-stock banks, nearly 83 per cent is held by eight companies.

Industrial amalgamations.—In the field of industry one of the largest instances of concentration has taken place in the Sheffield steel industry, where the recent organization of the United Steel Companies (Ltd.), with a capitalization of $50,000,000, represents an amalgamation of six concerns. Combinations have also been reported in the brewing and brick-manufacturing industries, and the subject has been considered of sufficient importance for the Ministry of Reconstruction to appoint a committee for its investigation and to suggest such action as may be necessary to safeguard the public interest. An important factor making for industrial concentration is the establishment of new industries to manufacture products formerly supplied by the enemy countries. Owing to the insistent war-time demand, such industries, like the dyestuff, magneto, etc., were necessarily formed with large capital and Government subsidies, and it is doubtful whether they will undergo any considerable decentralization after the war.

British Trade Corporation.—This institution, which is an outgrowth of the report of the Board of Trade Committee on Financial Facilities for Trade, under the chairmanship of Lord Faringdon, received a royal charter on April 21, 1917, in spite of some pronounced Parliamentary opposition. It has a capitalization of £10,000,000 and is intended to supply longer credit than is granted by the British joint-stock banks and to assist British industry and trade in connection with new overseas undertakings and contracts in somewhat the same manner as the German industrial banks. It is also authorized by its royal charter to obtain, work, or dispose of concessions and to acquire and develop resources in any part of the world. According to latest reports, there has been organized a Portuguese branch of the British Trade Corporation, having for one of its objects the control of the trade of the Portuguese colonies.

Federation of British Industries.—This organization, founded in July, 1916, has for its object to assist the Government in the framing of industrial legislation, settle labor difficulties, and promote British trade interests by organized effort. It is an association of manufacturers and is restricted to British firms.

British Empire Producers' Organization.—The aim of this organization is to bring about economic self-sufficiency for the British Empire and to promote the development of imperial resources with that end in view, or, as stated in a circular of that organization, to organize British industries on an Empire basis.

British-Italian Corporation.—This is a development corporation, with a corresponding company in Italy (Compagnia Italo-Britan-

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nica), organized in 1917 for the purpose of promoting closer trade relations between the two countries and evidently to counteract German economic penetration in Italy.

FRANCE.

As far as it is possible to ascertain from published sources, the French Government has not announced any definite plan for general economic reconstruction, probably owing to the fact that the restoration of the invaded regions is expected to engage the best efforts of the nation for some time after the conclusion of peace. A number of private organizations have been calling attention to certain shortcomings in French commercial methods and the lack of enterprise in the exploitation of colonial resources. The Association Nationale d'Expansion Economique has undertaken a comprehensive economic survey of the country, and the Comité Républicain du Commerce, de l'Industrie et de l'Agriculture has published the results of an investigation among the various commercial and industrial organizations as to their views in regard to the changes in the economic structure of the country necessitated by the war and preparations for the future.

A number of Parliamentary committees have reported on desirable changes in the customs law and the improvement of trade-promotion agencies. There has also been organized an association (Union Intersyndicale des Marques) for the purpose of protecting French products from imitation by the adoption of a distinctive form of marking. Another subject that is receiving considerable attention is the improvement of the Rhone River from Geneva to Lyon, which would give Geneva an all-water route to the sea through Marseille. The cost of the project is estimated at $70,000,000, and it is proposed to utilize the locks for the generation of electricity for Lyon and Paris.

The Government is evidently making preparations for the revision of the customs tariff, as evidenced by the recent notice regarding the forthcoming abrogation of commercial treaties providing for most-favored-nation treatment. The Ministry of Commerce has a large staff of economists and publicists working on economic problems that will come in for discussion during peace negotiations.

CENTRAL POWERS.

Imperial Ministry of Economics.—Recognizing the importance of the economic problems that are to come up after the conclusion of the war, a separate ministry (Reichswirtschaftsamt) was created by the imperial decree of October 21, 1917, to deal with matters con-

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nected with social and economic policies, formerly included within the functions of the Ministry of the Interior. The new ministry has also taken over the Office of the Imperial Commissary for Transition Economy, created in August, 1916, under the supervision of the Chancellor. The new ministry is divided into two main sections, each presided over by an Under-Secretary of State. One section deals with economic questions, including war economics, customs tariffs, monopolies, syndicates, etc. The other section deals with social questions, such as unemployment, insurance, savings, housing, etc. There is also an advisory board, made up of representatives of various branches of industry and commerce, who are assisted by committees of experts. The functions of the Office of the Imperial Commissary for Transition Economy, which has been absorbed by the new ministry, were stated by Dr. Helfferich in 1916 to deal with the problems of demobilization, elimination of woman and child labor after the war, the restoration of protective labor standards, problems of exchange and credit, supply of raw material, and transportation.[1]

Bank amalgamation.—The tendency toward concentration in banking has manifested itself in Germany as well as in Great Britain. The most striking illustration is found in the absorption by the Deutsche Bank of the Schlesischer Bankverein and the Norddeutsche Kreditanstalt, for the purpose of extending its sphere of activity into the eastern Provinces of Silesia, Pomerania, Posen, and East and West Prussia. This movement may be of considerable importance when taken in connection with the late political developments along the eastern frontier. As a result of this invasion of the eastern Provinces by the Deutsche Bank, the Danziger Privatbank has entered into closer relations with the Berliner Handelsgesellschaft. Another example of the amalgamation movement is furnished by the agreements entered into by the Austrian Creditanstalt in Vienna and the Hungarian Allgemeine Credit-Bank in Budapest with the Disconto-Gesellschaft and the Norddeutsche Bank for closer relations in regard to overseas trade. These agreements will give the Austrian and Hungarian institutions representation on the boards of some of the South American branches of the Disconto-Gesellschaft. According to a recent announcement in the Frankfurther Zeitung and Disconto-Gesellschaft is taking over five provincial banks in central and western Germany, which is regarded as a continuation of the policy underlying the absorption of the Schaffhausener Bankverein in 1914 and of the Königsberg Bankverein in 1916. The Dresdner Bank has greatly improved its representation in the Rhineland and Westphalia by the absorption of the Rhein-

[1] See also p. 13 for a discussion of the proposed functions of the Ministry in connection with the reconstruction program.

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isch-Westfalische Disconto-Gesellschaft in Aix-la-Chapelle, with a capital of 95,000,000 marks and valuable connections in the textile and milling industries.

Export trade organization.—A recent announcement in the Hamburger Nachrichten relates to the formation of a corporation for foreign and domestic enterprises (Aktien-Gesellschaft für In- und Auslands-Unternehmungen), somewhat along the lines of the British Trade Corporation (see p. 32). The corporation, which is capitalized at 25,000,000 marks, is to undertake the construction and operation of railroads, irrigation plants, harbors, electric plants, as well as factories; to operate plantations and mines; and to form and participate in subsidiary concerns. Among the German firms represented on the board of directors are the Norddeutsche Bank, Dresdner Bank, the Hamburg-American Line, Hugo Stinnes (Ltd.), Rheinish-Westphalian Coal Syndicate, Krupps, and Siemens & Schuckert. There has also been some movement in trading circles for the establishment of a special bank for export trade, on the ground that after the war the smaller German concerns may be unable to get the acceptance credits they formerly enjoyed in countries now at war with Germany. It is stated that the banks are not very favorably inclined toward the creation of the new institution.

Compulsory syndication.—The war with its resulting shortage of labor and raw materials has led the German Government to adopt the policy of compulsory syndication of a number of very important industries, with the result that the less efficient plants were usually closed down and production concentrated as much as possible in those fit to survive. In some cases amalgamation has been brought about in a voluntary manner at the suggestion of the Government, but where the interests involved were too divergent compulsory syndication had to be resorted to. In many cases the machinery from the closed plants has been transferred to those in operation. In a recent issue of a German trade publication it is stated that the Belting Release Bureau (Riemen-Freigabestelle) proposes to commandeer shortly all the belting from the closed textile mills, which would result in rendering four-fifths of the German textile mills incapable of any output for some time after the war. According to a recent letter by a prominent manufacturer in the Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung, only 70 out of 1,700 spinning and weaving mills are still running at high pressure, 1,400 boot and shoe factories have been amalgamated into 300, the oil industry has been concentrated in 15 mills out of 720 in operation under normal conditions, and in the silk industry the number of spindles has been reduced from 45,000 to 2,500. This policy has resulted in great hardships for the smaller concerns, and it is feared that some of

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them will not be in a position to reopen after the war. It is also maintained by the critics of the policy that the methods adopted by the Government were in some cases arbitrary and that action has been taken without consulting the interests of the entire trade. Some writers interpret this policy of the Government as a preliminary step toward the establishment of Government monopolies after the war. Several organizations have been formed for the protection of the interests of the owners of the closed industrial establishments, particularly with a view to securing adequate representation in the war economy offices and proper indemnification for removed equipment.

Water transportation.—The shortage of rail transportation and the growing influence of Germany in the Danube territory have served to call attention to the necessity of increasing and improving the waterways, and particularly the construction of canals connecting the Danube with the Rhine system. The improvement of the Danube is regarded by some German and Austro-Hungarian writers as one of the factors that will make for closer economic relations between the two countries and will facilitate the commercial invasion of the Near East. One of the schemes which seems to receive most serious consideration, particularly in Bavaria, is the Danube-Main canal, providing either for the utilization of the existing Ludwigskanal (Bamberg-Kelheim), which is rather inadequate for modern transportation requirements, or the construction of a new canal with a more direct route. A company to undertake the construction of a Main-Danube canal (Aschaffenburg-Nürnberg-Passau) for large vessels was organized in December, 1917, with a capital of 5,000,000 marks, and a board of directors on which the German Empire, Bavaria, and Baden are represented.

Another project to which considerable prominence is given by the press is the completion of the Mittellandkanal, which is to connect Hanover with Magdeburg and to supplement the rail transportation facilities between the east and the west. The construction of new waterways to promote the economic relations with the Baltic Provinces is also advocated as a part of the economic expansion of Germany toward the east.

Restoration of merchant marine.—The restoration of the German merchant marine is naturally regarded as one of the most pressing problems in the work of reconstruction. The ship subsidy act of November 7, 1917, empowers the Chancellor to grant subsidies to proprietors of German merchant vessels lost or heavily damaged as a result of the war. The vessel replaced with the aid of a Government subsidy must either be turned over by the owner to the State or the owner must bind himself to repay the subsidy at the rate of

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5 per cent annually. The sale of such a vessel to a foreigner within 10 years of its reentry into service can be made only with the consent of the State, whose consent is also required for charters and freight contracts with foreigners. The administration of the law is in charge of the Imperial Committee for the Reconstruction of the Merchant Marine (Reichsausschuss für den Wiederaufbau der Handelsflotte), and the regulations for procedure were issued by the Bundesrat in February, 1918. For the assistance of the inland shipowners, especially those of the Rhine, there is to be established a ship mortgage bank, to render the service formerly supplied by the Dutch mortgage banks.

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PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, AND TRADE IN IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS.

In the tables on the following pages are shown the production, imports, exports, and consumption of the important raw materials and foodstuffs in the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Italy, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Germany. In most cases the consumption figures have been obtained by adding the excess of imports to the production figures or subtracting the excess of exports, as figures for stock on hand at the beginning and end of the year are generally not available. Where the consumption figures are based on statistics of stock on hand, an appropriate footnote has been inserted.

Generally the statistics are for the calendar year 1913, if figures for that year were available; whenever figures for other years have been used an appropriate note has been added. In the tables giving details by countries, with the exception of the United Kingdom, the figures for 1912 have been used for agricultural products, as it is believed that by far the greater part of the commodities did not enter into commerce until 1913. In the case of the United Kingdom, the crop production of 1913 is given in order to follow the "Memorandum and tables relating to the food and raw material requirements of the United Kingdom," issued by the Dominions Royal Commission in 1915. In the first table showing production all the figures are for 1913 unless otherwise noted.

The data showing principal countries furnishing imports and taking exports are from the official foreign trade reports of the countries considered. It should be noted that the tables do not always show the original source of the imports or the ultimate destination of the exports. Import statistics show the countries from which the goods were purchased in the last transaction, while the export statistics show the country to which the goods are consigned by the selling country. The difficulty in determining the original source is strikingly illustrated in the case of Russia, which received the greater part of its supplies through Germany. The statistics show that Russia received 55 per cent of its coffee and 23 per cent of its raw cotton from Germany, although neither of these commodities is raised in that country.

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PRODUCTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913: THE WORLD, UNITED STATES, UNITED KINGDOM, FRANCE, ITALY, RUSSIA, AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, AND GERMANY.

[In the preparation of this and following tables use has been made of the Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture, the publication entitled "Mineral Resources," issued by the United States Geological Survey, and some unpublished data of the United States Geological Survey.]

Articles.	World.	United States.	United Kingdom.	France.	Italy.	Russia.	Austria-Hungary.	Germany.	Principal producing countries in 1913.
Foodstuffs:									
Wheat.....bushels..	4,127,437,000	763,380,000	58,800,000	321,000,000	214,405,000	952,605,000	232,193,000	171,075,000	Russia, U. States, Br. India, France, Aus.-Hun.
Rye.....do....	1,880,387,000	41,381,000	1,750,000	49,452,000	5,589,000	1,000,908,000	164,529,000	481,169,000	Russia, Ger., Aus.-Hun., France, U. States.
Barley.....do....	1,650,265,000	178,189,000	74,433,333	46,116,000	10,803,000	572,179,000	162,602,000	168,709,000	Russia, U. States, Ger., Aus.-Hun., Japan.
Oats.....do....	4,697,437,000	1,121,768,000	203,350,000	311,157,000	43,469,000	1,225,332	270,834,000	669,231,000	Russia, U. States, Ger., Canada, France.
Corn.....do....	3,587,429,000	2,446,988,000	.....	21,078,000	108,388,000	72,793,000	226,492,000	.....	U. States, Aus.-Hun., Arg., Roum., Italy.
Rice.....pounds..	100,700,000,000	715,111,000	.....	980,000	739,221,000	513,511,000	.....	.....	Br. India, China, Japan.
Sugar.....1,000 lbs..	38,128,000	3,602,000	.....	1,722,899	437,260	2,688,000	4,186,878	5,966,429	Ger., Br. India, Cuba, Aus.-Hun., Dutch E. Indies.[a]
Potatoes.....bushels..	5,802,910,000	331,525,000	283,920,000	499,194,000	65,741,000	1,333,745,000	627,728,000	1,988,591,000	Ger., Russia, Aus.-Hun., France, U. States.
Coffee.....pounds..	[b] 2,492,723,000	[c] 50,211,947	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brazil, Venez., Guat., Dutch E. Indies, Salvador.
Coal.....long tons..	1,319,642,848	508,893,052	287,000,000	40,275,485	690,001	33,204,000	[d] 53,258,890	[c] 272,962,293	U. States, U. Kingdom, Ger., Aus.-Hun., France.
Iron ore.....do....	174,000,000	61,980,437	16,000,000	21,572,835	593,618	[e] 8,088,995	5,018,109	34,431,234	U. States, Ger., France, U. Kingdom, Spain, Sweden.
Pig iron.....do....	77,892,012	30,966,152	10,300,000	5,227,378	420,011	4,474,757	2,335,170	18,987,229	U. States, Ger., U. Kingdom, France, Russia.
Manganese ore.....do....	2,376,859	4,048	5,000	7,609	1,596	1,289,370	21,989	(*f*)	Russia, Br. India, Brazil.
Tungsten ore.....do....	7,880	1,372	182	[g] 268	.....	(*f*)	[g] 67	[g] 134	Br. India, U. States, Australia, Portugal, Arg.
Copper {Total[h].....pounds..	2,198,723,130	1,888,000,000	93,632,000	26,455,200	4,609,866	74,735,940	9,038,860	[e] 100,233,159	U. States, Spain, Japan, Mexico, Australia.[j]
Copper {Domestic[i].....do....		1,224,484,098	896,000	.....	(*f*)	.....	5,291,000	[e] 60,428,695	
Lead {Total[h].....do....	2,540,916,000	924,920,000	73,920,000	61,728,000	47,840,000	2,204,000	53,130,000	[e] 389,409,026	U. States, Spain, Australia, Ger., Mexico.[j]
Lead {Domestic[i].....do....		823,756,000	40,320,000	18,519,000	48,502,000	3,307,000	46,518,000	[e] 209,534,000	
Tin {Total[h].....do....	292,460,000	100,800	42,560,000	665,520	.....	.....	23,400	[e] 23,369,000	Fed. Malay States, Bolivia, Dutch E. Indies, China, U. Kingdom.[j]
Tin {Domestic[i].....do....		100,800	11,800,000	.....	.....	.....	23,400	[k] 83	
Zinc {Total[h].....long tons..	982,133	309,532	58,212	63,105	2,164	7,593	19,200	[e] 264,910	U. States, Ger., Australia, Fr., N. Africa, Spain.[j]
Zinc {Domestic[i].....do....		301,118	5,800	14,800	53,300	14,000	10,800	[e] 296,760	
Nickel.....pounds..	64,032,000	482,000	[e] 11,146,392	[e] 4,409,200	.....	(*l*)	(*l*)	10,582,190	Canada, New Caledonia.[j]

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Aluminum.....do....	150,353,720	49,603,500	16,434,500	39,682,800	1,763,680	(f)	(f)	(f)	U. States, France, Aus.-Hun., U. Kingdom, Canada.[j]
Antimony.....do....	53,680,000	4,408,000	(f)	13,440,000	(f)	(f)	(f)	(f)	China, France, U. States, Algeria, Mexico.
Chromic iron ore..long tons..	177,802	255	(f)	(f)	(f)	21,401	.....	(f)	Rhodesia, New Caledonia, Russia, Turkey, Greece.
Graphite.....do....	124,348	4,263	(f)	6,889	10,969	(f)	48,675	11,909	Aus.-Hun., Ceylon, Ger., Italy, Madagascar.
Cotton.....bales, 500 lbs..	22,255,000	14,156,486	.....	.....	.....	1,004,000	.....	.....	U. States, Br. India, Egypt, China, Russia.
Wool.....pounds..	2,880,889,511	296,175,300	125,000,000	78,000,000	21,500,000	380,000,000	41,600,000	25,000,000	Australia, Russia, Arg., N. Zealand, Br. Africa.
Silk, raw.....do....	60,230,000	.....	.....	772,000	7,804,000	849,000	602,000	.....	Japan, China, Italy, Asiatic Turkey, France.
Flax fiber.....long tons..	1,006,996	.....	13,000	[e] 20,569	2,558	837,705	21,809	.....	Russia, Aus.-Hun., France, Japan, Belgium.
Hemp.....do....	671,469	.....	.....	[e] 13,644	88,579	443,115	13,126	.....	Russia, Italy, Aus.-Hun., France, Japan.
Jute.....do....	1,757,643	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Br. India.
Rubber.....pounds..	[b] 236,021,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Brazil, Br. E. Indies, Dutch E. Indies, Bolivia, Mexico.
Leaf tobacco.....do....	[m] 2,722,190,030	953,734,000	139,226	57,324,891	.....	233,451,150	132,516,743	45,562,930	U. States, Br. India, Russia, Dutch E. Indies, Aus.-Hun.
Mineral oils, crude, barrels of 42 gals.	383,753,547	248,446,230	1,880,952	.....	47,198	62,834,350	7,818,130	846,911	U. States, Russia, Mexico, Roum., Dutch E. Indies.
Nitrate of soda....long tons..	2,425,513	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Chile.
Phosphate rock.....do....	6,874,114	3,111,221	(f)	329,710	.....	24,000	.....	.....	U. States, Fr. Africa, France, Belg., Christmas Island.
Potash salts.....do....	(f)	.....	(f)	(f)	.....	(f)	.....	11,767,693	Germany.

[a] Russia is ordinarily one of the important sugar-producing countries, but the crop was smaller than usual in 1913.
[b] Exports of producing countries.
[c] Production of Porto Rico.
[d] Including lignite.
[e] Figures are for 1912.
[f] Figures not available.
[g] Estimated.
[h] Production from foreign and domestic ores.
[i] Recoverable metal content of domestic ores.
[j] Ore-producing countries.
[k] Tons of ore smelted in 1912.
[l] Negligible; figures not available.
[m] Approximate, figures not available for some countries.

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UNITED STATES.

In 1913 exports exceeded imports in the case of wheat, rye, barley, corn, meats, coal, pig iron, copper, zinc, cotton, mineral oils, tobacco, and phosphate rock. This indicates that in general the United States was independent of foreign sources of supply for these commodities, although some grades of certain materials, among which may be mentioned cotton and iron ore, are imported from foreign countries. The net imports of oats, potatoes, zinc ore, and oilseeds were small compared with the consumption, so that the country may be considered self-supporting for these commodities, with the exception of castor seed—obtained mostly from British India—and flaxseed, of which the imports amounted to about 20 per cent of the domestic production. Imports of iron ore were also small compared with the total consumption, the amount imported consisting almost entirely of high-grade ores not available in this country.

The commodities of which an appreciable supply was imported comprise rice, sugar, coffee, manganese ore, tungsten ore, tin, lead, nickel, aluminum, antimony, chromic iron ore, china clay, graphite, wool, silk, flax, hemp, jute, rubber, nitrate of soda, potash salts, hides, and fish.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.[a]	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Foodstuffs:								
Wheat.....bushels..	[b] 730,267,000	−[c] 153,976,519	576,290,481	.....	783,481	Canada 96[d].....	[c] 154,760,000	U. Kingdom 30; Neth. 15; Belg. 8; Ger. 12.[d]
Rye.....do....	[b] 35,664,000	− 1,994,929	33,669,071	.....	.....	.....	1,994,929	U. Kingdom 42; Neth. 22; Ger. 15.[d]
Barley.....do....	[b] 223,824,000	− 12,782,267	211,041,733	.....	.....	.....	12,782,267	U. Kingdom 43; Ger. 41.[d]
Oats.....do....	[b] 1,418,337,000	+ 8,029,958	1,426,366,958	0.6	13,308,581	Canada 98[d].....	5,278,623	U. Kingdom 25; Neth. 29; Belg. 13; Ger. 10.[d]
Corn.....do....	[b] 3,124,746,000	− 40,304,285	3,084,441,715	.....	5,005,328	Arg. 97[d].....	45,309,613	U. Kingdom 31; Ger. 13; Neth. 15; Canada 14; Denmk. 10.
Rice[e].....pounds..	[b] 695,944,000	+ 189,220,933	885,164,933	26	229,812,000	Ger. 33; Japan 22; China 14; Neth. 13; U. Kingdom 7.[d]	40,591,067	Arg. 30; Neth. 30.[d]
Sugar, in terms of raw, 1,000 pounds.	[b] 3,602,000	+ 4,685,914	8,287,914	50	4,757,781	Cuba 97.....	71,867	Refined: Newf. 23; Panama 19; Mexico 12.[d]
Potatoes.....bushels..	[b] 420,647,000	+ 1,342,803	421,989,803	.2	3,170,233	Canada 32; Bermuda 31[d].....	1,827,430	Cuba 56; Canada 13.[d]
Coffee.....pounds..	[f] 50,211,947	+ 792,306,708	842,518,655	94	852,529,498	Brazil 74; Colombia 10; Ven. 5; Mexico 4.	60,322,790	Cuba 42; Spain 17; Aus.-Hun. 9; Italy 10; France 14.[d]
Meats.....do....	(g)	− 251,888,317	(g)	.....	[h] 200,209,173	Arg. 32; U. Kingdom 30; Australia 10; Canada 11; Urug. 14.[i]	[h] 552,097,490	U. Kingdom 53; Canada 9; Cuba 6; Newf. and Lab. 3; Panama 2.[i]
Fish.....do....	(g)	+ 125,591,480	(g)	.....	236,741,141	Canada 50; U. Kingdom 20; Nor. 11; Neth. 9.[d]	111,149,661	U. Kingdom 28; Canada 8.
Coal.....long tons..	508,893,052	− 20,726,365	488,166,687	.....	1,414,778	Canada 77; Australia 13; Japan 8.	22,141,143	Canada 79.
Iron ore.....do....	61,980,437	+ 1,549,874	63,530,311	2	2,594,770	Cuba 63; Swed. 14; Newf. 8.....	1,044,896	Canada 99.[d]

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Pig iron.....do....	30,966,152	−	121,963	30,844,189	.....	156,450	U. Kingdom 84; Ger. 5.....	278,413	Canada 70; U. Kingdom 8.
Manganese ore.....do....	4,048	+	344,719	348,767	90	345,090	Br. India 43; Russia 36; Brazil 18.[d]	371	Canada 100.[d]
Tungsten ore.....do....	1,372	+	766	[f] 2,138	35	[h] 766	Ger. 80; Port. 10; U. Kingdom 9[d].....	.....	
Copper, refined, and ore in terms of copper, pounds.	[h] 1,224,484,098	−	517,464,387	[i] 812,068,639	.....	408,778,954	Mexico 26; Peru 10; Spain 10; Canada 16; Australia 5; Chile 10; U. Kingdom 4.	926,243,341	Ger. 33; Neth. 19; U. Kingdom 14; France 17; Canada 4; Aus.-Hun. [d].
Tin.....do....	[h] 100,800	+	101,814,254	101,915,054	100	104,282,230	U. Kingdom 52; Str. Sett. 40....	2,467,976	Canada 67; Mexico 6.[d]
Nickel.....do....	[h] 482,000	+	18,021,013	18,503,013	96	47,194,101	Canada 94; Belg. 5 [d].....	29,173,088	U. Kingdom 30; Neth. 23; France 15; Ger. 8.[d]
Lead (bullion and ore in terms of lead content), pounds.	[h] 823,756,000	+	25,206,855	848,962,855	3	114,293,966	Mexico 84; Chile 8.....	89,087,111	U. Kingdom 55; Ger. 30.[d]
Aluminum.....pounds..	[f] [h] 49,603,500		(m)	[f] 72,379,000	32	23,185,775	Ger. 31; Canada 25; U. Kingdom 18; France 10.[d]	(m)	
Antimony.....do....	[h] 4,408,000	+	15,319,315	19,727,315	77	15,383,295	U. Kingdom 40; China 23; Japan 11; France 11.[d]	63,980	Canada 86; Chile 14.[d]
Zinc.....long tons..	[h] 301,118	−	13,991	287,127	.....	5,446	Ger. 55; Belg. 26; U. Kingdom 8.	19,437	U. Kingdom 67; Canada 23.[d]
Zinc ore.....do....	11,715,335	+	12,235	11,727,570	.1	28,050	Mexico 56; Canada 27; Chile 11...	15,815	Neth. 100.
Chromic iron ore.....do....	255	+	65,180	65,435	99.6	65,180	Port. Africa 42; Fr. Oceania 25; Turkey 22.	.....	
China clay.....do....	25,744	+	239,887	265,631	90	240,120	U. Kingdom 99.....	233	
Graphite.....do....	4,263	+	25,785	30,048	83	25,785	Br. E. Indies 64; Mexico 14; Japan 10.[d]	.....	
Raw cotton..bales, 500 lbs..	[b] 13,703,421	−	8,757,310	4,946,111	.....	209,960	Egypt 76; China 10; U. Kingdom 7.[d]	8,967,270	U. Kingdom 36; Ger. 30; France 12.
Wool.....pounds..	296,175,300	+	147,994,935	444,170,235	33	151,813,703	U. Kingdom 33; China 18; Arg. 13; Russia 13.[d]	3,818,768	U. Kingdom 63; Canada 24.[d]
Silk, raw.....do....	.....	+	27,796,587	27,796,587	100	27,978,805	Japan 66; China 22; Italy 10.....	182,218	Canada 52; France 29; Italy 13.[d]
Flax.....long tons..	(g)	+	11,634	(g)	.....	11,634	Russia 36; U. Kingdom 33; Belg. 18.	.....	
Hemp.....do....	(g)	+	6,346	(g)	.....	6,405	Italy 66; Russia 17[d].....	59	
Jute.....do....	.....	+	124,409	124,409	100	124,642	Br. India 96[d].....	233	
Rubber.....pounds..	.....	+	111,667,531	115,880,641	100	111,667,531	U. Kingdom 30; Brazil 38; Br. E. Indies 11; Ger. 6.[d]	4,213,110	Canada 85; Ger. 6.[d]
Hides and skins.....do....	(g)	+	465,980,388	(g)	.....	497,897,316	U. Kingdom 9; Russia 14; Arg. 14; Br. India 12.[d]	31,916,928	Canada 50; Ger. 21.[d]

[a] Shows relation of net imports to amount consumed.
[b] Production figures are for year 1912, as the greater part of the crop of 1912 probably did not enter into commerce until 1913.
[c] Including wheat flour expressed as wheat.
[d] Percentages based on exports or imports for fiscal year ended June 30, 1913.
[e] Includes cleaned and uncleaned rice, broken rice, rice flour, and meal; uncleaned rice reduced to terms of cleaned rice; broken rice, rice flour, and meal not reduced.
[f] Production of Porto Rico.
[g] Production figures not available.
[h] Figures are for fiscal year ended June 30, 1914.
[i] Percentages are for fiscal year ended June 30, 1914.
[j] Estimated.
[k] Production figures are for metal from domestic ores; import and export figures include metal and metal content of ores.
[l] Computed from stock on hand at beginning and end of year.
[m] Aluminum and articles manufactured from aluminum are not shown separately in export statistics.

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PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913—Continued.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Tobacco.....pounds..	953,734,000	− 379,696,356	574,027,644	.....	66,899,275	Cuba 35; Turkey 47.....	446,595,631	U. Kingdom 40; Ger. 7; France 10; Italy 9; Neth. 7; Spain 5.
Oilseeds.....do....	[a]13,609,768,000	+ 332,238,463	13,942,006,463	2	372,709,504	Canada (flaxseed) 76; Br. India (castor seed and flaxseed) 17.[b]	40,471,041	Ger. 68; U. Kingdom 10; Mexico 9.[b]
Mineral oils, crude and refined, gallons.	10,434,741,660	−1,405,205,198	(c)	.....	731,360,523	Mexico (mostly crude) 93; Peru 4.[b]	2,136,565,721	Canada 13; U. Kingdom 13 France 6; Ger. 7.[b]
Nitrate of soda..long tons..	.....	+ 625,860	625,860	100	625,862	Chile 97 [b].....	2	
Phosphate rock.....do....	3,111,221	− 1,366,508	1,744,713	.....	.....	.....	1,366,508	Ger. 24; Neth. 13; U. Kingdom 12; France 8; Italy 7; Belg. 10.
Potash salts.....do....	(d)	+ 266,421	266,421	100	270,287	Ger. 95.[b].....	3,866	Canada 98.[b]
Timber and lumber, [e] M feet.	(f)	− 2,028,794	(f)	.....	1,202,572	Canada 87; Mexico 6; Cuba 2 [b]...	3,231,366	Canada 20; U. Kingdom 17; Arg. 8.

[a] Flaxseed and cotton seed only; production of castor beans negligible.
[b] Percentages based on exports or imports for fiscal year ended June 30, 1913.
[c] Consumption figures not available, as production figures are for crude oil only.
[d] Negligible; production figures not available.
[e] Does not include pulp wood and railroad ties. Imports of pulp wood amounted to 1,034,885 cords in 1913, almost entirely from Canada, no exports. Exports of railroad ties amounted to 5,710,061 ties in calendar year 1913; percentages of exports during fiscal year 1913 were as follows: Canada 70, Mexico 13, Cuba 5, Panama 5, Peru 3.
[f] Production figures not available.

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UNITED KINGDOM.

In 1913 exports exceeded imports in the case of pig iron, coal, china clay, and fish; of these, coal and china clay do not appear in the statistics of imports. While pig iron was not imported to a large degree, about 30 per cent of the iron ore used was imported. The net imports of potatoes were so small compared with the amount consumed that the country may be considered independent of foreign supplies.

The following commodities were imported to an appreciable extent either from foreign countries or British possessions: Wheat, rye, barley, oats, corn, rice, sugar, coffee, meats, iron ore, manganese ore, copper, tin, lead, antimony, zinc, zinc ore, graphite, cotton, wool, silk, flax, hemp, jute, rubber, hides, tobacco, oilseeds, mineral oils, nitrate of soda, phosphate of lime, potash salts, and lumber.

Chromic iron ore, tungsten, and nickel are not shown separately in the British statistics.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.[a]	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Foodstuffs:								
Wheat.....bushels.	58,800,000	+ [b] 222,880,000	281,680,000	80	[b] 228,853,333	U. States 34; Canada 22; Br. India 17.	[b] 5,973,333	Nor. 14; Egypt 13; Canary Is. 10; Channel Is. 9.
Rye.....do...	1,750,000	+ 1,805,680	3,555,680	50	1,811,400	Russia 48; U. States 24; Canada 19; Ger. 8.	5,720	Countries not given separately.
Barley.....do....	74,433,333	+ 51,566,667	126,000,000	40	52,266,667	U. States 20; Canada 12; Br. poss. 28; Russia 27.	700,000	Belg. 35; Greenl. and Ice. 11; Br. India 33.
Oats.....do....	203,350,000	+ 61,950,000	265,300,000	24	63,700,000	Arg. 35; Ger. 19; Canada 13; Russia 11; U. States 8.	1,750,000	France 50; Channel Is. 11; Br. poss. 24.
Corn.....do....	.....	+ 96,800,000	96,800,000	100	98,400,000	Arg. 73; Roum. 18; Br. poss. 4....	1,600,000	Spain 30; Canary Is. 19; Canada 16.
Rice, including rice meal and flour, bushels.	.....	+ 15,781,817	15,781,817	100	20,618,181	Br. India 64; Fr. Indo-China 11; Siam, 9.	4,836,364	Cuba 43; U. States 7; Canada 4.
Sugar, in terms of unrefined, 1,000 lbs.	.....	+ 4,569,600	4,569,600	100	4,643,022	Ger. 47; Neth. 10; Aus.-Hun. 18; Cuba 11.	73,422	Ger. 17; Channel Is. 4; Neth. 38; Den. 15.
Potatoes.....bushels.	283,920,000	+ 16,426,000	300,346,000	5	[c] 17,360,000	Neth. 30; Ger. 25; France 16; Channel Is. 12.	[d] 934,000	Canary Is. 40; Spain 15; Malta and Gozo 15.
Coffee, raw....pounds.	.....	+ 28,000,000	28,000,000	100	94,752,000	Brazil 31; C. Rica 23; Colombia 11; Br. poss. 11.	66,752,000	Ger. 41; Neth. 22; Aus.-Hun. 14.
Meats.....do....	(e)	+2,539,033,200	(e)	.....	2,638,349,840	Arg. 37; Australia 16; U. States 12.	99,256,640	U. States 17; France 11; Neth. 9.
Fish.....do....	(e)	− 888,155,136	(e)	.....	413,164,528	Nor. 38; deep-sea fisheries 20; U. States 9.	1,293,319,664	Ger. 45; Russia 31; U. States 5.

[a] Shows relation of net imports to amount consumed.
[b] Including wheat flour expressed as wheat.
[c] Net imports of foreign goods.
[d] Domestic exports only.
[e] Production figures not available.

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UNITED KINGDOM—Continued.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913—Continued.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Coal.....long tons..	287,000,000	− 98,000,000	189,000,000	.....	.....	.....	98,000,000	France 18; Italy 13; Ger. 12; Russia 8; Swed. 6; Arg. 5; Den. 4; Egypt 4.
Iron ore.....do....	16,000,000	+ 7,400,000	23,400,000	30	7,400,000	Spain 64; France and Alg. 15; Nor. and Swed. 12.	.....	
Pig iron.....do....	10,300,000	− 900,000	9,400,000	.....	200,000	Ger. 32; Swed. 50; U. States 10....	1,100,000	U. States 11; France 14; Ger. 12; Italy 10.
Manganese ore.....do....	5,000	+ 591,000	596,000	99	601,000	Russia 40; Br. India 50.....	10,000	Belg. 85; U. States 3.
Copper.....pounds..	[a] 93,632,000	+168,000,000	261,632,000	[b] 99	[c] 244,160,000	U. States 50; Australia 21; Japan 8; Chile 7.[d]	76,160,000	France 18; U. States 50; Neth. 9; Ger. 8.
Copper ore.....long tons..	2,732	+ 93,572	96,304	97	94,265	Chile 41; Australia 14; Venez. 14; Br. S. Africa 7.	693	
Tin.....pounds..	[b] 42,560,000	+ 8,960,000	51,520,000	[b] 79	[f] 103,040,000	Str. Sett. 90; Australia 5.....	94,080,000	U. States 83; Neth. 10;.
Tin ore.....long tons..	8,355	+ 31,027	39,382	79	34,592	Bolivia 60; Nigeria 11; Chile 11...	3,565	Ger. 70; Belg. 12; Aus.-Hun. 9
Lead.....pounds..	[g] 73,920,000	+311,360,000	385,280,000	90	[h] 8,456,960,000	Spain 38; Australia 35; U. States 12.	[i] 145,600,000	Russia 36; Ger. 10; France 16; Neth. 5.
Lead ore.....long tons..	24,282	+ 14,776	39,058	38	18,453	Australia 27; Peru 22; Tunis 19; France 6.	3,677	Belg. 74; Ger. 16.
Antimony.....pounds..	(*j*)	+ 1,184,960	(*j*)	.....	10,821,440	Mexico 49; China 42.....	9,636,480	U. States 59; Russ.a 10; Ger. 9; Neth. 8.
Zinc.....long tons..	[k] 58,212	+ 133,372	191,584	70	145,004	Ger. 44; Belg. 37; Neth. 9.....	11,632	Br. India 33; Neth. 16; Ger. 13; Russia 10.
Zinc ore.....do....	17,294	+ 47,790	65,084	74	64,670	Australia 26; Italy 21; Algeria 14.	16,880	Belg. 81; France 12; Ger. 6.
China clay.....do....	(*j*)	− 629,703	(*j*)	.....	.....	.....	629,703	
Graphite.....do....	(*j*)	+ 18,859	(*j*)	.....	20,674	Italy 6; Ger. 15; Ceylon 29; Madag. 19; Japan 19.	1,815	U. States 28; Belg. 40; Ger. 18.
Raw cotton..bales, 500 lbs..	.....	+ 3,832,000	3,832,000	100	4,348,000	U. States 73; Egypt 19; Br. India 2.	516,000	Russia 43; U. States 32; Belg. 5; Ger. 4.
Wool.....pounds..	125,000,000	+470,000,000	595,000,000	80	806,000,000	Australia 33; Union S. Africa 17; N. Zealand 22; So. Am. 12.	336,000,000	Ger. 27; France 26; Belg. 21; U. States 16.
Silk, waste, unmanufactured, pounds.	.....	+ 4,144,000	4,144,000	100	7,392,000	China 47; France 11; Br. poss. 17; Hong. 13; Japan 7.	3,248,000	U. States 55; Ger. 8; Switz. 17; France 7.
Silk, raw.....pounds..	.....	+ 926,000	926,000	100	970,000	China 56; France 20; Japan 10....	44,000	Ger. 33; France 44.
Flax.....long tons..	13,000	+ 76,000	89,000	85	84,000	Russia 81; Belg. 17; Neth. 2.....	8,000	U. States 67; Belg. 19.
Hemp.....do....	.....	+ 86,000	86,000	100	138,000	Phil. Is. 47; N. Zealand 17; Russia 10; Br. India 12.	52,000	France 33; U. States 16; Ger. 13; Neth. 13.
Jute.....do....	.....	+ 221,000	221,000	100	351,000	Br. India 99.....	130,000	France 35; Ger. 21; Belg. 15; Neth. 10.
India rubber.....pounds..	.....	+ 56,672,000	56,672,000	100	157,472,000	Str. Sett. 36; Brazil 23; Ceylon 10.	100,800,000	U. States 40; Ger. 22; Russia 14; France 14.

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Hides, raw.....do....	(f)	+106,848,000	(f)	.....	163,856,000	Australia 11; Arg. 13; S. Africa 13; Russia 11.	57,008,000	U. States 46; Belg. 12; Ger. 13; Neth. 6.
Leaf tobacco.....do....	139,226	+158,700,000	158,839,226	99	162,400,000	U. States 88; Neth. 4; Turkey 4..	3,700,000	Br. N. Africa 21; U. States 12; Belg. 11; Ger. 14; Neth. 10.
Oilseeds, all kinds, long tons.	(f)	+ 660,141	(f)	.....	660,825	Egypt 36; Br. India 34; Brazil 7; Canada 2.	684	Den. 53; Port. 13.
Petroleum, all kinds, gallons.	[m] 79,000,000	+483,950,167	563,000,000	86	488,106,963	Russia 8; Roum. 12; U. States 62; Mexico 4; Dutch E. Indies 6; Neth. 2.	4,156,796	Arg. 13; Australia 6; Channel Is. 13; Belg. 22; France 4.
Nitrate of soda..long tons..	.....	+ 130,260	130,260	100	140,926	Chile 97; Ger. 2.....	10,666	Spain 54; Fr. W. Indies 10; Br. W. Indies 7; Canary Is. 7.
Phosphate of lime and rock phosphate, long tons.	(f)	+ 527,000	(f)	.....	539,000	U. States 33; Tunis 35; France and Alg. 10.	12,000	N. Zealand 99.
Potash compounds, all kinds, dollars.[n]	(f)	+ 2,581,391	(f)	.....	4,239,695	Ger. 65; Russia 7; France 7.....	1,658,304	France 5; Fr. W. Indies 4; Brazil 8; Australia 4; U. States 12; Ger. 16.
Wood and timber, except furniture woods, loads.	(f)	+ 11,119,195	(f)	.....	11,198,966	Russia 48; Nor. and Swed. 17; Canada 9; U. States 7.	79,771	Br. W. Africa 25; Br. India 7; Persia 3; Spain 3.

[a] Includes copper produced from both foreign and domestic ores, regulus, etc.; production of metal from domestic ores amounted to only 896,000 pounds in 1913.
[b] Based on total metallic content of imported ores and metal.
[c] Metal only; in addition there were imported ore yielding 19,040,000 pounds of copper, regulus and precipitate yielding 36,736,000 pounds of copper, and cupreous pyrites yielding 36,960,000 pounds of copper.
[d] Metal only; percentages of ores and regulus supplied by principal countries were as follows: Ores—Chile 41, Australia 14, Venezuela 14, Union of South Africa and Peru 7 each; regulus and precipitate—Union of South Africa and Mexico 26 each, Australia 13, Spain 10, Canada 5.
[e] Includes tin produced from both domestic and foreign ores; production of metal from domestic ores amounted to 11,200,000 pounds.
[f] Metal only; in addition there were imported ore yielding 31,360,000 pounds of tin.
[g] Includes 35,840,000 pounds of lead in manufactures.
[h] Includes lead produced from both domestic and foreign ores; production of metal from domestic ores amounted to 40,320,000 pounds.
[i] Metal only; in addition there was imported ore yielding 33,600,000 pounds of lead.
[j] Production figures not available.
[k] Includes zinc produced from domestic and foreign ore; production of metal from domestic ore amounted to 5,800 tons.
[l] Of this quantity 99,100,000 pounds were manufactured for consumption in the United Kingdom and 59,736,226 pounds were manufactured for export.
[m] From oil shale.
[n] Quantities not given in British statistics for some classes of potash imports and exports.

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FRANCE.

In 1913 exports exceeded imports in the case of sugar, meats, iron ore, pig iron, aluminum, and antimony. The imports of rye and potatoes were so small compared with the consumption that the country may be regarded as independent of foreign sources of supply.

The commodities of which an appreciable supply was imported comprise wheat, barley, oats, corn, rice, coffee, fish, coal, manganese ore, copper, nickel, tin, lead, zinc, zinc ore, china clay, graphite, cotton, wool, silk, flax, hemp, jute, rubber, hides, tobacco, oilseeds, mineral oils, nitrate of soda, phosphate rock, potash salts, and lumber.

Tungsten ore and chromic iron ore are not shown separately in the French statistics.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.[a]	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Foodstuffs:								
Wheat, spelt, and maslin, bushels.	[b]336,284,000	+[c]56,640,562	[c]392,924,562	15	[c]57,737,112	Arg. 23; Ger. 16; Russia 14; Australia 11; U. States 8.	[c]1,096,550	Algeria 36; Tunis 36.
Rye.....bushels..	[b]48,890,000	+ 1,829,853	50,719,853	2	1,836,061	Ger. 81; Russia 11.....	6,208	
Barley.....do....	[b]49,079,000	+ 4,892,099	53,971,099	9	5,329,606	Tunis 36; Algeria 23; Russia 21..	437,507	Algeria 33; Italy 23.
Oats.....do....	[b]313,656,000	+ 37,931,038	351,587,038	10	38,116,960	Ger. 23; Russia 22; Arg. 19.....	185,822	Greece 26; Algeria 26.
Corn.....do....	[b]23,733,000	+ 23,166,239	46,899,238	50	23,259,439	Arg. 60; Indo-China 18; Russia 10.	93,200	
Rice (incl. meal and grits), pounds.	[b]1,257,000	+512,932,947	514,189,947	98	577,990,471	Indo-China 82; Br. E. Indies 7...	65,057,524	Senegal 45; Algeria 21.
Sugar, in terms of refined, 1,000 lbs.	1,722,899	− 142,341	1,580,558	.....	238,236	Martinique 32; Reunion 29; Guadeloupe 23.	380,577	Morocco 26; Algeria 23; U. Kingdom 14.
Potatoes.....bushels..	[b]552,074,000	+ 1,836,360	553,910,360	3	8,490,527	Belg. 58; Spain 19; Algeria 9.....	6,654,167	U. Kingdom 46; Algeria 12; Brazil 9.
Coffee.....pounds..	.....	+254,106,314	254,106,314	100	254,159,666	Brazil 53; Haiti 15; Ven. 10; Br. E. Indies 6.	53,352	
Meats.....do....	[d]	− 7,159,948	[d]	.....	39,666,888	U. Kingdom 24; Madag. 14; Belg. 14; Ger. 13.	46,826,836	Ger. 22; U. Kingdom 16; Switz. 14 ships, 9.
Fish.....do....	[d]	+112,760,475	[d]	.....	170,659,375	St. Pierre 64; Spain 11; Nor. 5...	57,898,900	Italy 23; Spain 10; Greece 9.
Coal.....long tons..	40,275,485	+ 17,176,645	57,452,130	30	18,415,421	U. Kingdom 60; Belg. 20; Ger. 19.	1,283,776	Belg. 62; Switz. 12.
Iron ore.....do....	21,572,835	− 8,519,492	13,053,343	.....	1,388,148	Ger. 57; Spain 32; Nor. 2.....	9,907,640	Belg. 50; Ger. 40.
Pig iron.....do....	5,227,378	− 66,002	5,161,376	.....	32,153	Swed. 43; U. Kingdom 32; Ger. 20.	98,155	Belg. 79; Switz. 15.
Manganese ore.....do....	7,609	+ 253,162	260,771	97	254,840	Russia 53; Br. E. Indies 34; Spain 9.	1,678	
Copper.....pounds..	[e]/26,455,200	+199,426,950	[e]225,881,150	[f]100	209,130,918	U. States 74; Japan 9; U. Kingdom 7.	9,704,968	U. Kingdom 50; Belg. 17.

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Copper.....long tons..	(d)	−	493	(d)	.....	9,500	Mexico 47; Chile 16; Nor. 12; Spain 11.	9,993	Belg. 27; Ger. 24; Nor. 16; U. Kingdom 15.
Nickel.....pounds..	e4,409,200	+	1,600,555	e 6,009,755	38	7,246,373	U. States 50; N. Caledonia 28.....	5,645,818	Neth. 71; Rissua 17.
Nickel ore.....long tons...	(d)	+	9,997	(d)	.....	10,130	N. Caledonia 56; Greece 43.....	133	Belg. 98.
Tin ore.....do....	.....	+	1,348	1,348	100	2,502	Chile 68; U. Kingdom 15; Port. 8.	1,154	U. Kingdom 81; Ger. 12.
Tin.....pounds..	f 665,520	+	15,636,504	16,302,024	g 100	17,531,813	Br. E. Indies 40; Dutch E. Indies 17; U. Kingdom 17; Ger. 10.	1,895,314	Spain 20; Italy 19; Algeria 11.
Lead.....do....	h 61,728,000	+	168,062,554	229,790,554	g 92	169,471,969	Belg. 62; Spain 13; U. Kingdom 9.	1,409,415	Algeria 46; Belg. 13.
Lead ore.....long tons..	e 14,000	+	25,105	39,105	64	39,143	Algeria 45; Italy 35; Tunis 6; Aus.-Hun. 5.	14,038	Belg. 88; U. Kingdom 7.
Aluminum.....pounds..	39,682,800	−	6,473,212	33,209,588	.....	2,866	.....	6,476,078	Ger. 35; U. States 28; Switz. 12; Belg. 8; U. Kingdom 5.
Antimony.....do....	i 13,440,000	−	3,985,000	9,455,000	.....	.....	.....	3,985,000	U. States 33; Ger. 28; Neth. 11.
Zinc.....long tons..	f 63,105	+	16,615	79,720	g 81	34,617	Belg. 84; Spain 6; Italy 4.....	18,005	Belg. 54; U. Kingdom 32; Italy 8.
Zinc ore.....do....	45,204	+	118,612	163,816	72	175,896	Spain 33; Italy 26; Australia 16; Indo-China 6.	57,284	Belg. 78; U. Kingdom 8; Ger. 7
China clay.....long tons..	(d)	+	56,548	(d)	.....	60,288	U. Kingdom 88; Ger. 7.....	3,740	Belg. 40; Italy 26; Spain 16.
Graphite.....do....	6,889	+	2,997	9,886	30	3,736	Italy 38; Ger. 17; Br. E. Indies 14.	739	
Cotton, raw and waste, bales, 500 lbs.	.....	+	1,196,210	1,196,210	100	1,451,240	U. States 76; Egypt 9; Br. E. Indies 8.	255,030	Ger. 50; Belg. 20; Switz. 11.
Wool.....pounds..	78,000,000	+	513,852,925	591,852,925	87	592,527,744	Australia 35; Arg. 23; U. Kingdom 14; Urug. 10; Spain 4.	78,674,819	Belg. 33; U. Kingdom 30; Ger. 17.
Silk.....do....	772,000	+	10,700,136	11,472,136	92	15,803,836	China 51; Japan 22; Italy 14.....	5,103,700	Italy 57; Switz. 20; U. States 6.
Flax.....long tons..	b 20,569	+	21,455	42,024	50	97,196	Russia 92; Belg. 6.....	75,741	Belg. 99.
Hemp.....do....	b 13,644	+	24,036	37,680	65	24,739	Italy 41; Russia 24; U. Kingdom 15.	703	
Jute and jute tow....do....	.....	+	118,836	118,836	100	120,298	Br. E. Indies 66; U. Kingdom 33.	1,462	Belg. 45; Ger. 21; U. Kingdom 15.
India rubber and gutta-percha, pounds.	.....	+	13,102,730	13,102,730	100	33,836,321	U. Kingdom 33; Brazil 20; Fr. Africa 13.	20,733,591	U. Kingdom 30; U. States 20; Ger. 14; Belg. 12.
Hides and skins (incl. fur skins), pounds.	(d)	+	118,875,977	(d)	.....	167,038,722	Brazil 13; Italy 8; Belg. 8; Ger. 8; China 6; Chile 4.	148,162,745	Ger. 41; Belg. 21; U. States 11.
Leaf tobacco (incl. stalks), pounds.	57,324,891	+	81,707,937	139,032,828	59	81,781,571	U. States 58; Ger. 9; Russia 8; Aus.-Hun. 5.	73,634	Algeria 61; Neth. 31.
Oilseeds.....long tons..	k 49,024	+	984,825	(d)	.....	1,008,010	Br. E. Indies 36; Fr. India 17; Arg. 11.	23,185	Russia 25; Spain 18; Algeria 12.

a Shows relation of net imports to amount consumed.
b Production figures are for 1912.
c Including wheat flour expressed as wheat.
d Production figures not available.
e Estimated.
f Entirely from foreign ore.
g Based on total metallic content of imported ore and metal.
h Includes lead produced from both domestic and foreign ores; recoverable lead content of domestic ore mined amounted to 18,519,000 pounds.
i Includes production from both foreign and domestic ores.
j Includes zinc produced from both domestic and foreign ores; recoverable zinc content of domestic ores mined amounted to 14,800 long tons.
k Production of only colza, hemp, and flax seed in 1912.

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FRANCE—Continued.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913—Continued.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Mineral oils:								
Crude and refined, barrels, 42 gals.	.....	+ 4,371,346	4,371,346	100	4,427,124	U. States 52; Roum. 22; Russia 14.	55,778	Algeria 93.
Heavy and residues, long tons.	.....	+ 136,069	136,069	100	142,327	U. States 49; Russia 42.....	6,258	Algeria 67.
Total.....long tons	.....	+ 673,599	673,599	100	686,891	U. States 52; Russia 20; Roum. 18.	13,292	Algeria 80.
Nitrate of soda.....do	.....	+ 311,842	311,842	100	317,027	Chile 100.....	5,185	Belg. 56; Algeria 14; U. Kingdom 11.
Phosphate rock.....do	329,710	+ 905,124	1,234,834	73	925,932	Tunis 75; U. States 12; Algeria 9.	20,808	U. Kingdom 48; Belg. 41.
Potash salts (chloride and sulphate), long tons.	(a)	+ 58,857	(a)	.....	59,700	Ger. 94; Belg. 4.....	843	
Timber and lumber, long tons.	(a)	+ 677,766	(a)	.....	1,984,807	Russia 49; Swed. 26; U. States 8.	1,307,041	U. Kingdom 62; Belg. 22; Spain 3.

a Production figures not available.

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ITALY.

In 1913 exports exceeded imports in the case of rice, sugar, potatoes, iron ore, aluminum, graphite, silk, hemp, and hides.

The commodities of which an appreciable amount was imported comprise wheat, rye, barley, oats, corn, coffee, meats, fish, coal, pig iron, copper, nickel, tin, lead, antimony, china clay, cotton, wool, flax, jute, rubber, tobacco, oil seeds, mineral oils, nitrate of soda, phosphate rock, potash salts, and lumber.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.[a]	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Foodstuffs:								
Wheat.....bushels..	[b] 165,721,469	+[c] 61,837,382	227,558,851	28	[c] 66,635,581	Russia 49; Roum. 18; Arg. 16; U. States 8.	[c] 4,798,199	Turkey 23; Switz. 16; Egypt 8.
Rye.....do....	[b] 5,285,188	+ 404,784	5,689,972	7	405,296	Ger. 63; Roum. 22; Russia 10....	512	
Barley.....do....	[b] 8,402,826	+ 710,669	9,113,495	8	727,663	Aus.-Hun. 81; Russia 11.....	16,994	
Oats.....do....	[b] 28,306,663	+ 7,271,948	35,578,611	20	7,331,197	Arg. 83; Roum. 10; Russia 4.....	59,249	Tripoli 69.
Corn.....do....	[b] 98,668,663	+ 13,486,619	112,155,282	12	13,847,390	Arg. 73; Roum. 23; Russia 3.....	360,771	Aus.-Hun. 92; Switz. 6.
Rice.....pounds..	[b] 598,100,000	−144,488,739	[d] 453,611,261	.....	[e] 1,867,315	Arg. 61; Dutch E. Indies 28.....	146,356,054	Arg. 28; Aus.-Hun. 19; France 12; Switz. 11; Urug. 8.
Sugar.....1,000 lbs..	437,260	− 7,356	429,904	.....	15,345	Aus.-Hun. 76; France 12	22,701	U. Kingdom 48; Switz. 46.
Potatoes.....bushels..	[b] 56,313,411	− 5,041,493	51,271,918	.....	135,290	Ger. 29; Aus.-Hun. 28.....	5,176,783	Ger. 34; Aus.-Hun. 19; Br. India 11.
Coffee.....pounds..	.....	+ 62,515,374	62,515,374	100	63,194,839	Brazil 77; Haiti and Dom. Rep. 9; Cen. Am. 7.	679,465	Tripoli 98.
Meats.....do....	(f)	+ 18,107,009	(f)	.....	39,178,789	Arg. 40; U. States 33; Australia 12	21,071,780	Switz. 36; U. Kingdom 10; France 9.
Fish.....do....	(f)	+141,354,208	(f)	.....	150,427,111	Nor. 24; Canada 18; U. Kingdom 15; Spain 14.	9,072,903	Aus.-Hun. 31; U. States 18; Ger. 14.
Coal and coke...long tons..	[g] 690,001	+ 10,473,930	11,163,931	94	10,662,900	U. Kingdom 87; Ger. 9; France 2.	188,970	Tripoli 77.
Iron ore.....do....	593,618	− 1,615	592,003	.....	7,892	Belg. 37; Spain 31; Ger. 14.....	9,507	Aus.-Hun. 96.
Pig iron.....do....	420,011	+ 217,640	637,651	34	218,187	U. Kingdom 51; Ger. 32; U. States 9.	547	

[a] Shows relation of net imports to amount consumed.
[b] Production figures for 1912.
[c] Including wheat flour expressed as wheat.
[d] Approximate, as cleaned and rough rice are not shown separately in import and export statistics.
[e] Cleaned and rough, but mostly cleaned.
[f] No production figures available.
[g] Coal only.

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ITALY—Continued.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913—Continued.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Copper, brass, and bronze, pounds.	[a] 4,609,886	+ 63,526,408	(b)	.....	66,756,400	U. States 80; U. Kingdom 5; Ger. 4.	3,229,992	France 52; Ger. 27.
Copper ore.....long tons..	88,074	+ 412	88,486	.5	692	France 54; U. Kingdom 24.....	280	Ger. 99; U. Kingdom 1.
Nickel; alloys with copper and zinc, pounds.	.....	+ 1,368,850	1,368,850	100	1,510,607	U. States 51; Nor. 24; Ger. 8.....	141,757	U. Kingdom 42; Ger. 42.
Tin; alloys with lead and antimony, pounds.	.....	+ 6,219,239	6,219,239	100	6,554,342	Str. Sett. 85.....	335,103	Turkey 26; U. Kingdom 25.
Lead; alloys with antimony, pounds.	[c] 47,840,000	+ 24,069,401	(b)	.....	25,340,586	Spain 90; Ger. 4.....	1,271,185	Ger. 52; Aus.-Hun. 16.
Lead ore.....long tons..	43,949	− 7,281	36,668	.....	9,401	Tunis 98; Spain 2.....	16,682	France 70; Ger. 24.
Aluminum; alloys with copper, pounds.	[d] 1,763,680	− 38,360	(b)	.....	224,872	France 55; Ger. 36.....	263,232	U. States 70; Aus.-Hun. 21.
Antimony.....pounds..	(e)	+ 1,131,401	(e)	.....	1,131,401	France 50; Ger. 32.....	.....	
Zinc.....long tons..	[f] 2,164	+ 10,710	12,874	(g)	12,252	Belg. 31; Ger. 26; France 17; Nor. 9.	1,542	France 84; Switz. 6.
Zinc ore.....do....	155,778	− 142,354	13,424	.....	5	Belg. 100.....	142,359	Belg. 71; France 12; U. Kingdom 6.
China clay.....do....	(e)	+ 25,377	(e)	.....	25,385	U. Kingdom 81; Aus.-Hun. 9....	8	
Graphite.....do....	10,969	− 7,639	3,030	.....	558	France 47; Ger. 12; Roum. 11; U. Kingdom 11.	8,197	Ger. 46; U. Kingdom 16; Belg. 13.
Cotton, raw.bales, 500 lbs..	.....	+ 889,805	889,805	100	890,142	U. States 73; Br. India and Ceylon 17.	337	
Wool.....pounds..	21,500,000	+ 32,990,887	54,490,887	61	37,276,672	Arg. 22; Urug. 19; Australia 17; France 11.	4,285,785	U. Kingdom 34; Ger. 18; France 15.
Silk.....do....	[h] 11,479,469	− 9,952,326	1,527,143	.....	6,272,592	Japan 43; China 36; France 6....	16,224,918	Switz. 29; Ger. 26; U. States 14; France 14.
Flax.....long tons..	[h] 2,461	+ 2,715	5,176	52	2,715	Russia 82; Belg. 10.....	.....	
Hemp.....do....	[h] 93,401	− 45,230	48,171	.....	7,357	Br. India and Ceylon 69; Phil. Is. 13.	52,587	Ger. 30; France 18; U. Kingdom 18; Aus.-Hun. 10; U. States 9.
Jute.....do....	.....	+ 40,714	40,714	100	41,314	Br. India and Ceylon 100.....	600	
India rubber and gutta-percha, pounds.	.....	+ 5,610,103	5,610,103	100	6,270,608	Brazil 67; Fr. Africa 12; Br. E. Indies 12.	660,505	Spain 53; U. States 46.
Hides and skins..pounds..	(e)	− 8,044,444	(e)	.....	53,981,065	Br. India and Ceylon 25; Arg. 20; China 13; France 10.	62,025,509	France 24; U. Kingdom 24, Ger. 24; Aus.-Hun. 12; U. States 7.
Tobacco, in leaves or stalks, pounds.	[h] 20,960,667	+ 53,307,330	74,267,997	72	56,160,332	U. States 82; Turkey 15; Greece 2.	2,853,002	Aus.-Hun. 50; Switz. 29.
Oilseeds.....long tons..	[i] 8,582	+ 87,254	(f)	.....	91,200	Br. India and Ceylon 63; Arg. 14; Morocco 5.	3,946	Malta 27; Ger. 20; France 17.

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Mineral oils (petroleum, gasoline, and residues), long tons.	6,468	+	189,767	196,235	97	189,906	U. States 51; Roum. 42	139	
Nitrate of soda..long tons..	.....	+	66,304	66,304	100	66,353	Chile 100	49	
Phosphate rock.....do....	.....	+	517,304	517,304	100	521,409	Tunis 82; U. States 15; Algeria 2.	4,105	Aus.-Hun. 76; Switz. 24.
Potash salts (chloride and sulphate), long tons.	.....	+	16,251	16,251	100	16,254	Ger. 99	3	
Timber and lumber, long tons.	(e)	+	1,368,030	(e)	.....	1,460,818	Aus.-Hun. 76; U. States 12	92,788	Spain 19; Switz. 11; France 9.

a Copper only, production of metal from all ores.
b Consumption figures not available, as commodity is not shown separately in import and export statistics.
c Lead only, production of metal from all ores; recoverable lead content of domestic ores mined was 48,502,000 pounds.
d Aluminum only.
e No production figures available.
f Production from both domestic and foreign ore; recoverable zinc content of domestic ore mined amounted to 53,300 long tons.
g Italy imported 83 per cent of the metallic zinc consumed, but if the zinc ores produced had been smelted in the country it would have been independent of foreign supplies.
h Production figures for 1912.
i Linseed only.
j Consumption figures not available, as production statistics are for linseed only.

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RUSSIA.

In 1913 exports exceeded imports in the case of wheat, rye, barley, oats, corn, sugar, potatoes, meats, iron ore, manganese ore, zinc ore, flax, hemp, tobacco, oilseeds, mineral oils, and lumber. The net imports of pig iron were so small compared with the consumption that the country may be regarded as self-supporting as respects this commodity.

The commodities of which an appreciable supply was imported comprise rice, coffee, fish, coal, copper, nickel, tin, tin plate, lead, aluminum, zinc, graphite, cotton, wool, silk, jute, rubber, hides and skins, nitrate of soda, and potash salts.

Antimony, chromic iron ore, china clay, and phosphate rock are not shown separately in the Russian statistics.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.[a]	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Foodstuffs:								
Wheat.....bushels.	[b] 720,042,000	−[c] 117,548,742	[c] 602,493,258	.....	[c] 4,786,818	China 78; Ger. 15.....	[c] 122,335,560	Italy 29; Neth. 23; France, 5; U. Kingdom 9; Ger. 6.
Rye.....do....	[b] 1,042,072,000	− 17,683,871	1,024,388,129	.....	7,768,911	Ger. 99.....	25,452,782	Neth. 51; Ger. 15; Nor. 7.
Barley.....do....	[b] 468,151,000	−179,238,512	288,912,488	.....	1,105,536	China 43; Persia 27.....	180,344,048	Ger. 61; Neth. 19; U. Kingdom 9.
Oats.....do....	[b] 1,067,587,000	− 38,700,660	1,028,886,340	.....	2,608,186	Ger. 90; China 9.....	41,308,846	Neth. 35; U. Kingdom 25; France 22.
Corn.....do....	[b] 79,608,000	− 22,237,784	57,370,216	.....	662,406	Ger. 32; U. States 24.....	22,900,190	Roum. 24; Neth. 19; U. Kingdom 13; France 11; Ger. 11.
Rice.....pounds..	[b] 278,572,000	+289,502,529	568,074,529	51	296,190,396	Persia 68; Ger. 12; Turkey 8.....	6,667,867	Persia 74; Turkey 17.
Sugar, raw and refined, 1,000 lbs.	2,688,000	− 324,318	(d)	.....	519	.....	324,837	Persia 61; Finland 30.
Potatoes.....bushels..	[b] 1,395,620,000	− 2,611,962	1,393,008,038	.....	394,921	China 47; Ger. 29.....	3,006,883	Ger. 69; Aus.-Hun. 17.
Coffee.....pounds..	.....	+ 27,680,497	27,680,497	100	27,680,497	Ger. 55; U. Kingdom 7; Neth. 7; America 6.	.....	.....
Meats.....do....	(c)	− 44,416,649	(c)	.....	31,466,600	China 90; Finland 9.....	75,883,249	U. Kingdom 44; Ger. 40.
Fish.....do....	(c)	+742,385,419	(d)	.....	797,758,728	U. Kingdom 27; Nor. 27; Ger. 19; Swed. 13.	55,373,309	Roum. 45; China 13; Ger. 10.
Coal.....long tons..	33,204,000	+ 7,539,429	[f] 40,743,529	19	7,635,477	U. Kingdom 54; Ger. 41.....	[g] 95,948	.....
Iron ore.....do....	[b] 8,088,995	− 462,272	7,626,723	.....	.....	.....	462,272	Neth. 81; U. Kingdom 13.
Pig iron.....do....	4,474,757	+ 9,555	4,484,312	.2	9,775	Ger. 80; Neth. 9.....	220	.....
Manganese ore.....do....	1,289,370	− 1,174,947	[h] 169,423	.....	.....	.....	1,174,947	Neth. 32; U. Kingdom 23; Belg. 17; U. States 11; Ger. 7.
Copper.....pounds..	[i] 74,735,940	+ 12,814,266	86,650,206	15	13,585,563	Ger. 58; U. States 20.....	771,297	Ger. 36; Japan 23; Persia 20.
Copper ore.....long tons..	(c)	− 166	(c)	.....	.....	.....	166	Ger. 65; U. Kingdom 35.
Nickel.....pounds..	(j)	+ 6,389,365	6,389,365	100	6,389,365	Ger. 47; U. Kingdom 18; Belg. 15.	.....	.....
Tin.....do....	(j)	+ 13,305,328	13,305,328	100	13,305,328	Ger. 30; U. Kingdom 29; Neth. 23.	.....	.....
Tin plate.....do....	.....	+ 4,729,080	4,729,080	100	4,729,080	Ger. 85; U. Kingdom 13.....	.....	.....

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Lead.....do....	[k] 2,204,000	+127,987,410	130,191,410	[l] 97	127,987,410	Ger. 42; U. Kingdom 21; Spain 17	2,917	Ger. 99.
Lead ore.....long tons..	(e)	— 2,917	(e)	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Aluminum.....pounds..	(f)	+ 3,610,811	3,610,811	100	3,610,811	Ger. 65; U. Kingdom 19.....	77	
Zinc.....long tons..	[m] 7,593	+ 25,181	32,774	(n)	25,258	Ger. 80; Neth. 9; U. Kingdom 5.	13,233	Ger. 100.
Zinc ore.....do....	(e)	— 13,233	(e)	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Graphite.....do....	(e)	+ 4,126	(e)	.....	4,126	Ger. 47; Aus.-Hun. 26; U. Kingdom 22.	.....	
Cotton, raw..bales, 500 lbs..	1,004,000	+ 868,171	1,872,171	46	868,280	U. States 39; Ger. 23; Persia 13; U. Kingdom 8; Turkey 7.	109	
Wool.....pounds..	380,000,000	+ 92,679,384	472,679,384	20	121,690,710	Ger. 32; France 23; China 22.....	29,011,326	Ger. 25; U. Kingdom 23; France 19.
Silk.....do....	849,009	+ 3,297,929	4,146,929	80	3,314,974	Ger. 54; Italy 24.....	17,045	Persia 44.
Flax.....long tons..	[b] 748,234	— 267,616	480,618	.....	522	Ger. 74.....	268,138	Belg. 29; U. Kingdom 25; Ger. 23; France 14.
Hemp.....do....	[b] 392,491	— 51,635	340,856	.....	1,101	Ger. 70; Persia 9.....	52,736	Ger. 56; U.Kingdom 20; Belg.9.
Jute.....do....	.....	+ 44,054	44,054	100	44,054	Br. India 85.....	.....	
India rubber and gutta-percha, pounds.	.....	+ 28,134,688	28,134,688	100	28,134,688	U. Kingdom 32; Ger. 24; U. States 15; Br. India 12.	.....	
Hides and skins (incl. fur skins), pounds.	(e)	+ 26,972,000	(e)	.....	148,456,073	Ger. 75; China 9; Belg. 4.....	121,484,073	Ger. 47; U. Kingdom 17; U. States 16.
Leaf tobacco.....pounds..	233,451,159	— 27,456,453	205,994,706	.....	834,170	Turkey 39; Ger. 27; U. Kingdom 18.	28,290,623	Finland 33; Ger. 24; Egypt 15.
Oilseeds.....long tons..	[o] 1,153,525	— 163,911	(e)	.....	82,210	Ger. 43; Br. India 27; U. Kingdom 12.	246,121	Ger. 32; U. Kingdom 25; Neth. 19.
Mineral oils, crude and refined, long tons.	[p] 8,438,307	— 920,795	(g)	.....	11,275	Ger. 36; Roum. 19; Turkey 18...	932,070	U. Kingdom 19; Turkey 16; Ger. 14; Egypt 13; France 12.
Nitrate of soda..long tons..	.....	+ 42,697	42,697	100	42,697	Ger. 75; U. Kingdom 14; Chile 4..	.....	
Potash salts.....do....	(e)	+ 75,762	(e)	.....	75,762	Ger. 90; U. Kingdom 8.....	.....	
Timber and lumber..do....	(e)	— 6,511,951	(e)	.....	965,531	Finland 72; Aus.-Hun. 10; China 10.	7,477,482	U. Kingdom 36; Ger. 33; Neth. 16.

[a] Shows relation of net imports to amount consumed.
[b] Production figures are for 1912.
[c] Including wheat flour expressed as wheat.
[d] Figures not available, as production figures are for raw sugar and export and import figures are for raw and refined.
[e] Production figures not available.
[f] Approximate, as coal and coke are not shown separately in export statistics.
[g] Coal and coke.
[h] Stocks on hand Jan. 1, 1913, 715,500 tons; Jan. 1, 1914, 560,500 tons.
[i] Copper production from domestic ore; practically no foreign ore imported.
[j] Production negligible; no figures available.
[k] Metal produced from domestic ore; recoverable lead content of domestic ore mined amounted to 3,307,000 pounds in 1913.
[l] Based on total metallic content of imported and exported ores and metals.
[m] Metal produced from domestic ore; recoverable zinc content of domestic ore mined amounted to 14,000 long tons in 1913.
[n] Russia imported 77 per cent of the metallic zinc consumed, but if all the domestic ores had been smelted in the country it would have been dependent on foreign sources for only 57 per cent of its supplies.
[o] Production of flaxseed and hemp seed only.
[p] Crude oil only.

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AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

In 1913 exports exceeded imports in the case of wheat, barley, sugar, meats, china clay, graphite, and mineral oils. The net imports of rye, oats, and potatoes were so small compared with the consumption that the country may be regarded as self-supporting for these commodities.

The commodities of which an appreciable amount was imported include corn, rice, coffee, fish, coal, iron ore, pig iron, manganese ore, copper, nickel, lead, aluminum, cotton, wool, silk, flax, hemp, jute, rubber, hides, tobacco, oilseeds, nitrate of soda, phosphate rock, potash salts, and lumber.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.[a]	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Foodstuffs:								
Wheat.....bushels..	[b] 257,347,000	− [c] 710,957	[c] 256,736,043	.....	[c] 1,018,465	Roum. 88.....	[c] 1,729,422	Serbia 45; Turkey 16; Ger. 13.
Rye.....do....	[b] 170,420,000	+ 262,117	170,682,117	0.1	266,621	Ger. 83.....	4,504	Ger. 74.
Barley.....do....	[b] 149,120,000	− 7,839,031	141,280,969	.....	351,357	Roum. 83.....	8,190,388	Ger. 80.
Oats.....do....	[b] 231,221,000	+ 701,491	231,922,491	3	1,047,134	Ger. 43; Russia 40.....	345,643	Serbia 52; Turkey 34.
Corn.....do....	[b] 224,373,000	+ 25,813,499	250,186,498	10	25,843,942	Roum. 68; Arg. 15.....	30,444	Serbia 46; Ger. 22.
Rice.....pounds..	.....	+237,560,413	237,560,413	100	237,810,417	Br. Indies [d] 79; Italy 11.....	250,004	Ger. 57; Russia 29.
Sugar, in terms of raw, 1,000 lbs.	4,186,878	− 2,559,219	1,627,659	.....	26,851	.....	2,586,070	U. Kingdom 47; Turkey 17; Br. Indies [d] 15.
Potatoes.....bushels..	[b] 683,779,000	+ 3,327,561	687,106,561	.4	4,506,262	Ger. 61; Italy 20.....	1,178,701	Ger. 63; Switz. 7.
Coffee.....pounds..	.....	+130,953,247	130,953,247	100	130,961,184	Brazil 73; Cen. Am. 12; Other Am. 9.	7,937	
Meats.....do....	[e]	− 1,547,646	[e]	.....	3,815,319	Serbia 69; Italy 12.....	5,362,965	Ger. 45; France 30; Switz. 14.
Fish.....do....	[e]	+100,839,868	[e]	.....	108,579,856	Ger. 55; Nor. 16; U. Kingdom 14..	7,739,988	Ger. 69; Italy 19.
Coal and lignite.long tons..	53,258,890	+ 5,901,946	59,160,836	10	13,505,534	Ger. 93; U. Kingdom 6.....	7,603,588	Ger. 96; Italy 1; Serbia 1.
Iron ore.....do....	5,018,109	+ 822,462	5,840,571	14	927,429	Swed. 75; Algeria 7.....	104,967	Ger. 100.
Pig iron.....do....	2,335,170	+ 133,354	2,468,524	5	152,549	Ger. 64; U. Kingdom 32.....	19,195	Italy 83; Ger. 12.
Manganese ore.....do....	20,904	+ 65,674	86,578	76	66,216	Russia 74; Asia 23.....	542	
Copper.....pounds..	[f] 9,033,860	+ 77,380,224	86,419,084	[g] 94	80,422,824	U. States 68; Ger. 21.....	3,042,600	Ger. 72.
Copper ore.....long tons..	17,676	− 31	17,645	.....	148	Ger. 100.....	179	Ger. 95; U. Kingdom 5.
Nickel.....pounds..	[h]	+ 4,108,975	4,108,975	100	4,178,421	U. Kingdom 41; Ger. 26; U. States 12; France 9.	69,446	Ger. 91.
Cobalt and nickel ore, long tons.	[e]	− 4	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	Ger. 100.
Tin and alloys....pounds..	[i] 23,400	+ 6,950,513	6,973,913	100	9,290,499	Ger. 47; Br. Indies [d] 45.....	2,339,986	Ger. 70.
Lead and alloys.....do....	[k] 53,130,000	+ 24,277,744	77,407,744	[g] 40	26,614,423	Ger. 97.....	2,336,679	Ger. 94.
Lead ore.....long tons..	25,344	+ 5,145	30,489	17	7,928	Aus. 75; Tunis 24.....	2,783	Ger. 100.
Aluminum, magnesium, and alloys, pounds.	[e]	+ 687,763	[e]	.....	1,298,081	Ger. 35; France 26; Switz. 15; U. Kingdom 9.	600,318	Ger. 57; U. States 41.

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Antimony.....pounds..	[f] 1,893,090	−	1,388,030	494,940	.....	130,955	Serbia 75; Ger. 14.....	1,513,985	Ger. 39; U. States 21; Russia 9; Italy 7.
Zinc.....long tons..	[m] 19,200	+	18,372	37,572	[g] 71	31,338	Ger. 98.....	12,966	Ger. 88; Italy 6.
Zinc ore.....do....	34,449	+	35,355	69,804	51	51,473	Ger. 82; China 10.....	16,118	Ger. 95; Neth. 5.
Chromic iron ore.....do....	[e]	+	2,660	[e]	.....	2,800	Oceania 88; Turkey 9.....	140	Ger. 99.
China clay.....do....	[e]	−	174,183	[e]	.....	13,380	Ger. 97.....	187,563	Ger. 91.
Graphite.....do....	48,675	−	22,630	26,045	.....	1,475	Ger. 71.....	24,105	Ger. 83.
Cotton, raw..bales, 500 lbs..	.....	+	893,489	893,489	100	910,764	U. States 53; Br. Indies[d] 21.....	17,275	Italy 42; Ger. 31.
Wool.....pounds..	41,600,000	+	48,386,411	89,976,411	54	57,901,261	Ger. 27; Arg. 25; Australia 14; Belg. 10.	9,524,850	Ger. 47; Italy 20; Serbia 17.
Silk.....do....	602,000	+	1,563,738	2,165,738	72	2,180,812	France 20; Switz. 24; Italy 22; Ger. 21.	617,074	Italy 58; Ger. 37.
Flax.....long tons..	[b] 23,003	+	48,424	71,437	67	53,586	Russia 65; Ger. 35.....	5,162	Ger. 98.
Hemp.....do....	[b] 14,750	+	2,364	17,114	14	7,358	Italy 60; Russia 21.....	4,004	Ger. 70; Roum. 13.
Jute.....do....	.....	+	59,917	59,917	100	59,919	Br. Indies[d] 97	2	
India rubber, gutta-percha, balata, pounds.	.....	+	6,164,564	6,164,564	100	7,975,000	U. Kingdom 38; Ger. 34; Br. Africa 13.	1,810,436	Ger. 99.
Hides and skins...pounds..	[e]	+	20,432,886	[e]	.....	101,401,830	Br. Indies[d] 30; Ger. 20; Italy 6; Greece 5; Russia 5.	80,968,944	Ger. 77; Russia 4.
Leaf tobacco.....do....	[b] 188,189,756	+	28,927,294	217,117,050	13	48,174,969	Turkey 32; Dutch E. Indies 24; Brazil 13; U. States 9.	19,247,675	France 28; Neth. 24; Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus 22.
Oilseeds.....long tons..	[n] 38,755	+	226,438	[o]	.....	231,947	Br. Indies[d] 38; Arg. 16; Russia 13; Br. Africa 11; Roum. 5.	5,809	Ger. 46; Italy 12; Russia 10.
Mineral oils.....do....	[p] 1,070,114	−	433,233	[q]	.....	50,064	U. States 49; Roum. 45.....	483,297	Ger. 56; France 13; Switz. 8; Hamburg 7, Belg. 8.
Nitrate of soda.....do....	.....	+	91,257	91,257	100	91,565	Chile 88; Ger. 11.....	308	Russia 75.
Phosphate rock.....do....	.....	+	209,664	209,664	100	209,664	U. States 26; Br. Indies[d] 17; Tunis 17; Algeria 16.	.....	
Potash salts.....do....	.....	+	106,584	106,584	100	108,330	Ger. 100.....	1,746	
Timber and lumber.do....	[e]	+	3,627,278	[e]	.....	464,275	Russia 42; Roum. 31.....	4,091,553	Ger. 47; Italy 26.

[a] Shows relation of net imports to amount consumed.
[b] Figures are for 1912.
[c] Including wheat flour expressed as wheat.
[d] In the Austrian statistics the term British Indies is used for all British possessions in the East Indies.
[e] Production figures not available.
[f] Includes copper produced from both foreign and domestic ores; recoverable copper content of domestic ores mined amounted to 5,201,000 pounds.
[g] Based on total metallic content of imported ores and metal.
[h] Production negligible; figures not available.
[i] Tin only, all from domestic ore.
[k] Includes lead produced from both foreign and domestic ores; recoverable lead content of domestic ores mined amounted to 46,518,000 pounds.
[l] Includes metal produced from both foreign and domestic ores.
[m] Includes zinc produced from both foreign and domestic ores; recoverable zinc content of domestic ores mined amounted to 10,900 tons.
[n] Linseed, hemp, rape, and colza seed produced in Austria.
[o] Production figures not available for all oilseeds.
[p] Crude oil only.
[q] Figures not available, as imports and exports do not show crude and refined oil separately.

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GERMANY.

In 1913 exports exceeded imports in the case of rye, oats, sugar, coal and lignite, pig iron, and potash salts. The net imports of potatoes were so small as compared with the consumption that the country may be regarded as self-supporting.

The commodities of which an appreciable supply was imported comprise wheat, barley, corn, rice, coffee, meats, fish, iron ore, manganese ore, wolfram ore, copper, nickel, tin, lead, aluminum, antimony, zinc ore, chromic iron ore, china clay, graphite, cotton, wool, silk, flax, hemp, jute, rubber, hides, tobacco, oilseeds, nitrate of soda, phosphate rock, and lumber.

PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.[a]	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Foodstuffs:								
Wheat.....bushels..	[b] 160,224,000	+ 64,813,643	[c] 225,037,643	29	[c] 94,452,389	U. States 40; Russia 20; Arg. 17; Canada 12.	[c] 29,638,746	France 31; Neth. 13; Switz. 10.
Rye.....do....	[b] 456,600,000	− 22,909,239	433,690,761	.....	13,878,956	Russia 86.....	36,788,195	Russia 25; Den. 19; Neth. 15; Nor. 12.
Barley.....do....	[b] 159,924,000	+148,449,567	308,373,567	48	148,729,926	Russia 90; U. States 6.....	280,359	Switz. 50.
Oats.....do....	[b] 586,987,000	− 11,790,966	586,196,034	.....	34,793,233	Russia 54; Arg. 32.....	45,584,199	U. Kingdom 25; France 19; Neth. 15.
Corn.....do....	.....	+ 36,164,495	36,164,495	100	36,165,857	Arg. 61; U. States 19.....	1,362	
Rice.....pounds..	.....	+646,519,083	646,519,083	100	1,052,927,232	Br. India 77; Siam 13; Neth. 6..	406,418,149	Cuba 23; So. Am. 19; Russia 9; Port. 6.
Sugar, in terms of raw, 1,000 lbs.	5,966,429	− 2,600,632	3,365,797	.....	5,080	.....	2,605,712	U. Kingdom 75.
Potatoes.....bushels..	[b] 1,844,863,000	+ 1,821,646	1,846,684,646	.....	14,037,917	Neth. 51; Russia 16.....	12,216,271	U. Kingdom 38; Aus.-Hun. 20.
Coffee.....pounds..	.....	+369,350,789	369,350,789	100	371,134,328	Brazil 69; Guatemala 13.....	1,783,539	
Meats.....do....	(d)	+140,520,205	(d)	.....	150,850,845	Neth. 27; Den. 26; Russia 20; Aus.-Hun. 6.	10,330,640	France 25; Turkey 17; Aus. Hun. 10.
Fish.....do....	(d)	+795,046,975	(d)	.....	852,077,472	U. Kingdom 38; Neth. 26; Nor. 17; Den. 9.	57,030,497	Aus.-Hun. 56; Russia 11.
Coal and lignite.long tons..	272,962,293	− 16,861,049	256,101,244	.....	17,250,317	U. Kingdom 53; Aus.-Hun. 43..	34,111,366	Aus.-Hun. 35; Neth. 21; Belg. 17.
Iron ore.....do....	34,431,234	+ 11,230,917	45,662,171	25	13,802,823	Swed. 33; France 27; Spain 26...	2,571,886	Belg. 66; France 33.
Pig iron.....do....	18,987,229	− 648,193	18,339,036	.....	122,353	U. Kingdom 59; Swed. 36.....	770,546	Belg. 40; France 15; Aus.-Hun. 14.
Manganese ore.....do....	(e)	+ 660,478	(d)	.....	669,626	Russia 66; Br. India 26.....	9,148	Aus.-Hun. 44; U. Kingdom 13.
Wolfram ore.....do....	[f] 134	+ 4,727	4,861	97	4,727	Br. E. Indies 30; Australia 16; Port. 9; Arg. 9.	.....	
Copper [b].....pounds..	[g] 100,233,159	+481,022,774	581,255,933	[h] 89	496,904,212	U. States 88; Australia 6.....	15,881,438	Aus.-Hun. 65.
Copper ore [b].....long tons..	958,898	+ 1,668	960,566	.2	22,826	Swed. 30; Den. 28; Fr. W. Africa 8; Spain 8; Bolivia 4.	21,158	Aus.-Hun. 59; Belg. 36.

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Nickel [b] ..... pounds..	10,582,190	+ 3,607,644	14,189,834	25	7,308,985	U. States 65; Belg. 16; U. Kingdom 12.	3,701,341	Russia Au 53; s.-Hun. 15; Italy 9.
Nickel ore [b] ..... long tons..	(d)	+ 14,750	(d)	.....	14,750	Fr. Oceania 82; France 10; U. States 6.	.....	
Tin [b] ..... pounds..	[f] 23,369,000	+ 17,247,204	40,616,204	[h] 99	31,439,240	Dutch E. Indies 45; Br. E. Indies 13; U. Kingdom 12; Australia 11.	14,192,036	U. States 16; France 14; Russia 12; Aus.-Hun. 10; Belg. 9.
Tin ore [b] ..... long tons..	[f] 83	+ 16,295	16,378	100	16,295	Bolivia 80; Chile 13; Australia 3..	.....	
Tin plate ..... pounds..	239,464,000	+ 91,229,476	330,693,476	28	92,904,328	U. Kingdom 100	1,674,852	Aus.-Hun. 26; Switz. 18.
Lead [b] ..... do....	[h] 389,409,026	+ 93,501,563	482,998,589	[h] 56	184,705,464	Spain 51; U. States 19; Belg. 17..	91,203,901	Aus.-Hun. 35; Russia 18; Belg. 16; France 8.
Lead ore [b] ..... long tons..	140,583	+ 117,686	258,269	46	120,907	Australia 80; Aus.-Hun. 8; Russia 2.	3,221	Belg. 72; Neth. 16.
Aluminum ..... pounds..	(d)	+ 27,820,789	(d)	.....	33,780,324	Switz. 40; France 27; U. Kingdom 12; Aus.-Hun. 8.	5,959,535	U. States 38; Aus.-Hun. 13; Russia 12.
Antimony ..... do....	(d)	+ 6,397,529	(d)	.....	7,945,158	China 27; U. Kingdom 21; Japan 17.	1,547,629	Russia 53; U. States 22.
Zinc [b] ..... long tons..	[i] 264,910	— 47,628	217,282	.....	56,038	Belg. 55; Neth. 13; Aus.-Hun. 12; Nor. 9.	103,666	U. Kingdom 37; Aus.-Hun. 29; Russia 13.
Zinc ore [b] ..... do....	633,427	+ 238,033	871,460	27	308,321	Australia 54; Spain 7; Italy 6; Aus.-Hun. 5; Belg. 4.	50,432	Aus.-Hun. 52; Belg. 29; Neth. 8.
Chromic iron ore ..... do....	(d)	+ 22,214	(d)	.....	22,884	Fr. Oceania 58; Port. E. Africa 17; Turkey 9.	670	Switz. 50; Belg. 11.
China clay ..... do....	(d)	+ 254,455	(d)	.....	296,548	Aus.-Hun 57; U. Kingdom 39...	41,393	Aus.-Hun. 31; Russia 20.
Graphite ..... do....	11,909	+ 31,244	43,153	73	36,581	Aus.-Hun. 53; Ceylon 23.....	5,337	U. Kingdom 31; Belg. 9.
Cotton, raw.. bales, 500 lbs..	.....	+ 1,894,094	1,894,094	100	2,107,375	U. States 77; Br. India 12.....	213,281	Aus.-Hun. 50.
Wool ..... pounds..	25,600,000	+381,138,419	406,738,419	44	439,317,964	Australia 39; Arg. 25; Br. S. Africa 13.	58,179,545	Aus.-Hun. 32; Russia 24.
Silk ..... do....	.....	+ 7,784,301	7,784,301	100	9,488,474	Italy 65; France 15.....	1,704,173	Switz. 32; Aus.-Hun. 25.
Flax ..... long tons..	.....	+ 34,889	34,889	100	70,502	Russia 92.....	35,613	Aus.- Hun. 78.
Hemp ..... do....	.....	+ 40,105	40,105	100	47,883	Russia 57; Italy 33.....	7,778	U. Kingdom 32.
Jute and jute tow .... do....	.....	+ 151,806	151,806	100	159,504	Br. India 98.....	7,698	Russia 82.
India rubber ..... pounds..	.....	+ 36,432,711	36,432,711	100	45,188,589	Br. E. Indies 30; Brazil 27; Ger. Africa 14; Belg. Kongo 8.	8,755,878	U. States 50; Aus.-Hun. 14.
Hides and skins ..... do....	(d)	+433,712,306	(d)	.....	617,947,088	Arg. 14; Aus.-Hun. 12; France 10; Russia 9; Br. India 7.	184,234,782	Russia 25; Aus.-Hun. 16 Belg. 14.
Leaf tobacco ..... do....	45,562,930	+178,499,236	224,062,167	80	179,455,821	Dutch E. Indies 47; Brazil 12; Turkey 10; Dom. Rep. 9.	956,585	Algeria 48; France 35.

[a] Shows relation of net imports to amount consumed.
[b] Figures are for 1912.
[c] Including wheat flour expressed as wheat.
[d] Production figures not available.
[e] No figures available; production in 1910 was 2,901,442 tons, of which only 166 tons contained more than 30 per cent of manganese.
[f] Approximate.
[g] Includes copper produced from both foreign and domestic ores and from slag of copper pyrites; recoverable copper content of domestic ores mined amounted to 60,428,695 pounds.
[h] Based on total metallic content of imported ores and metal.
[i] Includes tin produced from both foreign and domestic ores; output of domestic ore amounted to 83 long tons.
[j] Domestic ores reduced in the smelters.
[k] Includes lead produced from both foreign and domestic ores; recoverable lead content of domestic ores amounted to 209,534,000 pounds.
[l] Includes zinc produced from foreign and domestic ores; zinc content of domestic ores mined amounted to 296,760 long tons.

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PRODUCTION, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND CONSUMPTION OF IMPORTANT FOODSTUFFS AND INDUSTRIAL RAW MATERIALS IN 1913—Continued.

Articles.	Production.	Excess of imports (+) or excess of exports (−).	Consumption.	Per cent imported.	Imports.		Exports.	
					Quantity.	Per cent furnished by principal countries.	Quantity.	Per cent taken by principal countries.
Oilseeds.....long tons..	(a)	+ 1,706,431	(b)	.....	1,719,791	Arg. 25; Br. India 18; Br. W. Africa 13; Egypt 12.	13,360	Aus.-Hun. 19; Den. 17; France 9.
Mineral oils, crude and refined, long tons.	119,072	+ 1,238,237	(c)	.....	1,271,005	U. States 57; Aus.-Hun. 18; Russia 12.	32,768	Br. India 22; U. Kingdom 15.
Nitrate of soda..long tons..	.....	+ 735,015	735,015	100	762,088	Chile 99.....	27,073	Aus.-Hun. 40; Russia 32.
Phosphate rock.....	.....	+ 908,103	908,103	100	914,879	U. States 45; Algeria 21; Tunis 11.	6,776	Switz. 60; Aus.-Hun. 26.
Potash salts.....do....	11,767,693	− 1,679,240	10,088,453	.....	.....	.....	1,679,240	U. States 48; Neth. 12; U. Kingdom 8; Swed. 6; Russia 5.
Timber and lumber..do....	(b)	+ 6,773,985	(d)	.....	7,419,288	Russia 51; Aus.-Hun. 28.....	645,303	Switz. 22; Neth. 20; France 15.

a Rapeseed only oilseed produced; no production figures available.
b Production figures not available.
c Figures not available, as production figures are for crude and import and export figures are for crude and refined.
d Consumption figures not available.

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APPENDIXES.

Appendix A.—ECONOMIC CONFERENCE OF THE ALLIED GOVERNMENTS.

[Announcement issued by the British Board of Trade.]

The representatives of the Allied Governments have met at Paris under the presidency of M. Clémentel, Minister of Commerce, on June 14, 15, 16, and 17, 1916, for the purpose of fulfilling the mandate given to them by the Paris Conference of March 28, 1916, of giving practical expression to their solidarity of views and interests, and of proposing to their respective Governments the appropriate measures for realizing this solidarity.

They declare that, after forcing upon them the military contest in spite of all their efforts to avoid the conflict, the Empires of Central Europe are to-day preparing, in concert with their allies, for a contest on the economic plane, which will not only survive the reestablishment of peace, but will at that moment attain its full scope and intensity.

They can not therefore conceal from themselves that the agreements which are being prepared for this purpose between their enemies have the obvious object of establishing the domination of the latter over the production and the markets of the whole world and of imposing on other countries an intolerable yoke.

In face of so grave a peril the representatives of the Allied Governments consider that it has become their duty, on grounds of necessary and legitimate defense, to adopt and realize from now onward all the measures requisite on the one hand to secure for themselves and for the whole of the markets of neutral countries full economic independence and respect for sound commercial practice, and, on the other hand, to facilitate the organization on a permanent basis of their economic alliance.

For this purpose the representatives of the Allied Governments have decided to submit for the approval of those Governments the following resolutions:

MEASURES FOR THE WAR PERIOD.

I. The laws and regulations prohibiting trading with the enemy shall be brought into accord. For this purpose:

(*a*) The Allies will prohibit their own subjects and citizens and all persons residing in their territories from carrying on any trade with (1) the inhabitants of enemy countries whatever their nationality; (2) enemy subjects wherever resident; (3) persons, firms, and companies whose business is controlled wholly or partially by enemy subjects or is subject to enemy influence and whose names are included in a special list.

(*b*) They will prohibit the importation into their territories of all goods originating in or coming from enemy countries.

(*c*) They will devise means of establishing a system enabling contracts entered into with enemy subjects and injurious to national interests to be canceled unconditionally.

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II. Business undertakings owned or operated by enemy subjects in the territories of the Allies will all be sequestrated or placed under control; measures will be taken for the purpose of winding up some of these undertakings and of realizing their assets, the proceeds of such realization remaining sequestrated or under control.

III. In addition to the export prohibitions which are necessitated by the internal situation of each of the Allied countries, the Allies will complete the measures already taken for the restriction of enemy supplies, both in the mother countries and in the dominions, colonies, and protectorates: (1) by unifying the lists of contraband and of export prohibition, and particularly by prohibiting the export of all commodities declared absolute or conditional contraband; (2) by making the grant of licenses for export to neutral countries from which export to enemy territories might take place conditional upon the existence in such countries of control organizations approved by the Allies; or, in the absence of such organizations, upon special guarantees such as the limitation of the quantities exported, supervision by Allied consular officers, etc.

TRANSITORY MEASURES FOR THE PERIOD OF COMMERCIAL, INDUSTRIAL, AGRICULTURAL, AND MARITIME RECONSTRUCTION OF THE ALLIED COUNTRIES.

I. The Allies declare their common determination to insure the reestablishment of the countries suffering from acts of destruction, spoliation, and unjust requisition, and decide to join in devising means to secure the restoration to those countries, as a prior claim, of their raw materials, industrial and agricultural plant, stock, and mercantile fleet, or to assist them to reequip themselves in these respects.

II. Whereas the war has put an end to all the treaties of commerce between the Allies and the enemy Powers, and whereas it is of essential importance that, during the period of economic reconstruction which will follow the cessation of hostilities, the liberty of none of the Allies should be hampered by any claim put forward by the enemy Powers to most-favored-nation treatment, the Allies agree that the benefit of this treatment shall not be granted to those Powers during a number of years to be fixed by mutual agreement among themselves.

During this number of years the Allies undertake to assure to each other so far as possible compensatory outlets for trade in case consequences detrimental to their commerce result from the application of the undertaking referred to in the preceding paragraph.

III. The Allies declare themselves agreed to conserve for the Allied countries, before all others, their natural resources during the whole period of commercial, industrial, agricultural, and maritime reconstruction, and for this purpose they undertake to establish special arrangements to facilitate the interchange of these resources.

IV. In order to defend their commerce, their industry, their agriculture, and their navigation against economic aggression resulting from dumping or any other mode of unfair competition the Allies decide to fix by agreement a period of time during which the commerce of the enemy Powers shall be submitted to special treatment and the goods originating in their countries shall be subjected either to prohibitions or to a special régime of an effective character.

The Allies will determine by agreement through diplomatic channels the special conditions to be imposed during the above-mentioned period on the ships of the enemy Powers.

V. The Allies will devise the measures to be taken jointly or severally for preventing enemy subjects from exercising, in their territories, certain industries or professions which concern national defense or economic independence.

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PERMANENT MEASURES OF MUTUAL ASSISTANCE AND COLLABORATION AMONG THE ALLIES.

I. The Allies decide to take the necessary steps without delay to render themselves independent of the enemy countries in so far as regards the raw materials and manufactured articles essential to the normal development of their economic activities.

These measures should be directed to assuring the independence of the Allies not only so far as concerns their sources of supply, but also as regards their financial, commercial, and maritime organization.

The Allies will adopt such measures as may seem to them most suitable for the carrying out of this resolution, according to the nature of the commodities and having regard to the principles which govern their economic policy.

They may, for example, have recourse either to enterprises subsidized, directed, or controlled by the Governments themselves, or to the grant of financial assistance for the encouragement of scientific and technical research and the development of national industries and resources; to customs duties or prohibitions of a temporary or permanent character; or to a combination of these different methods.

Whatever may be the methods adopted, the object aimed at by the Allies is to increase production within their territories as a whole to a sufficient extent to enable them to maintain and develop their economic position and independence in relation to enemy countries.

II. In order to permit interchange of their products the Allies undertake to adopt measures for facilitating their mutual trade relations, both by the establishment of direct and rapid land and sea transport services at low rates, and by the extension and improvement of postal, telegraphic, and other communications.

III. The Allies undertake to convene a meeting of technical delegates to draw up measures for the assimilation, so far as may be possible, of their laws governing patents, indications of origin, and trade-marks.

In regard to patents, trade-marks, and literary and artistic copyright which have come into existence during the war in enemy countries, the Allies will adopt, so far as possible, an identical procedure, to be applied as soon as hostilities cease. This procedure will be elaborated by the technical delegates of the Allies.

Whereas for the purposes of their common defense against the enemy the Allied Powers have agreed to adopt a common economic policy, on the lines laid down in the resolutions which have been passed, and whereas it is recognized that the effectiveness of this policy depends absolutely upon these resolutions being put into operation forthwith, the representatives of the Allied Governments undertake to recommend their respective Governments to take without delay all the measures, whether temporary or permanent, requisite for giving full and complete effect to this policy forthwith, and to communicate to each other the decisions arrived at to attain that object.

PARIS, JUNE 17, 1916.

Appendix B.—REPORT OF BRITISH COMMITTEE ON COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL POLICY AFTER THE WAR.

[From Commerce Reports, June 5, 1918.]

The final report of the Committee on Commercial and Industrial Policy after the War, presided over by Lord Balfour of Burleigh, which has just been presented to the Prime Minister, deals with many phases of economic reconstruction. It will be remembered that the committee was appointed in July,

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1916, to consider the commercial and industrial policy after the war, with special reference to the conclusions of the Paris Economic Conference held in June, 1916. The committee was also instructed to look into the following questions: (*a*) What industries are essential to the future safety of the nation; and what steps should be taken to maintain or establish them; (*b*) what steps should be taken to recover home and foreign trade lost during the war, and to secure new markets; (*c*) to what extent and by what means the resources of the Empire should and can be developed; (*d*) to what extent and by what means the sources of supply within the Empire can be prevented from falling under foreign control.

The report is based largely on documentary evidence obtained by the special committees of the Board of Trade in their investigations of various industries. Hearings were held in connection with the investigation of a small number of so-called "pivotal" industries and a large number of communications were received from chambers of commerce and trade organizations. The conclusions embodied in the interim reports, dealing with imports from present enemy countries during the transitional period, the treatment of British and colonial exports and conservation of resources during the same period, imperial preference, and essential industries, are included in the final report. It is pointed out by the committee that no attempt has been made to give a detailed elaboration of the measure recommended, since they may be affected by circumstances which can not be foreseen at present. The main object of the report, it is stated, is to lay down the general lines of policy upon which permanent provision should be made, in the light of the experience of the war, for the safeguarding and promotion of British industry and commerce in the future.

BRITISH TRADE AND INDUSTRY BEFORE THE WAR.

The second chapter of the report, which follows the introduction, contains a review of the position of British industry and trade in 1913, the last normal year before the outbreak of the war. This is based largely on reports of departmental committees, dealing with the following subjects: The coal trade, the iron and steel trades, the engineering trades, shipbuilding and marine engineering, electrical trades, nonferrous metals, the textile trades, and the chemical trades, including drugs and dyes. The conclusions reached by the committee are summarized in the British Board of Trade Journal of May 2, 1918, as follows:

"From that survey we draw certain broad conclusions as to the condition of British industry and trade and the competition to which it was exposed immediately before the war. We find that in long-established manufactures, with the important exception of the iron and steel trades, British industry had shown in the decade preceding the war great vitality and power of extension, but that in the rise and expansion of the more modern branches of industrial production the United Kingdom has taken only a limited share. Certain branches of production, of great importance as a basis for other manufactures, had come to be entirely or very largely under German control, and in numerous branches of industry, outside of the great staple trades, foreign competition had become increasingly acute, and foreign manufactures had secured a strong or even predominant position. In overseas trade British merchants and manufacturers were encountering energetic and successful competition, which is ascribed to a variety of causes, including the adoption by foreign merchants and manufacturers of methods of organization and distribution different from, and in some cases markedly more effective than, those hitherto pursued by British traders.

"Owing to the abnormal conditions due to the war, whilst an amount of foreign trade very large in value has been maintained, its character and direction

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have been altered in many respects. We think that war requirements have enormously increased our productive capacity in certain great branches of industry, notably the steel and chemical industries, and that in numerous directions British manufacturers have shown much adaptability and resourcefulness, and the knowledge and experience gained during the war should be a most valuable asset in respect of our post-war trade. We urge the vital importance of every effort on the part of both employers and employed to attain the largest possible volume of production in order to secure the speedy recovery of our industrial and financial position."

MEASURES FOR TRANSITIONAL PERIOD.

The conclusions reached by the committee in regard to measures to be adopted for the control of trade relations with foreign countries are of particular interest in view of the prominence given to that subject in the conclusions of the Paris Economic Conference. The committee recommends that the present prohibition on the importation of goods of enemy origin should be retained, with a provision for special license in exceptional cases, for at least one year after the conclusion of peace and for such further period as the Government may consider expedient. In regard to the resolution of the Paris Conference providing for priority among the Allies as to the supplies of materials for the restoration of their industries, the committee suggests that this plan could be carried into effect if a policy of joint control of certain commodities can be agreed upon between the British Empire and the Allies. It is pointed out by the committee that the prolongation of the war and the entry of the United States have increased the importance of a considered policy directed toward assuring the British Empire and the Allies adequate supplies of essential raw materials during the period immediately following the conclusion of peace.

In view of the pending measure for the continuation of the war restrictions on imports and exports for a period of three years after the conclusion of peace and the passage of the Nonferrous Metal Bill, which invests the Board of Trade with extensive powers for the control of the British industry and trade in nonferrous metals, it may be worth reproducing the following passage from the report of the committee bearing on that subject:

"We recognize that in addition to the foregoing proposals [relating to trade relations with the Allies], it will be necessary to continue for some period after the war some portion of the control of home and foreign trade imposed during the war in order particularly to secure to the country adequate supplies of foodstuffs and raw materials for industry and their distribution. But we recommend that the restrictive measures which it may be necessary to continue should be kept within the narrowest possible limits, and, wherever practicable, the trades concerned should be intrusted with the working of the control under Government authority. The policy of the Government should be directed toward the restoration of normal industrial conditions within the shortest possible time. We are strongly of opinion that State control of, and restrictions upon, industry arising out of war conditions will be found to be detrimental under normal conditions and should be removed as soon as possible after the conclusion of peace, due regard being had to the circumstances of each particuar case."

THE SUPPLY OF MATERIALS.

The war, with its resultant dislocation of economic life, has forced some of the belligerent countries to realize the element of weakness involved in the dependence of a country for its supply of essential raw materials or manu-

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factured goods upon another country, with which political and economic relations may be broken off on account of war. Out of this realization there has developed a definite movement, in countries like Great Britain and Germany, for economic self-sufficiency, which, in the case of Great Britain, is very closely connected with the broader movement for a closer union among the different parts of the British Empire. In the report of the committee it is pointed out that any attempt to make the British Empire self-supporting in regard to all the raw materials for which it depends on foreign countries would be neither practicable nor economically sound, and it is recommended that a selective policy be adopted, which shall have regard to the relative importance, industrial or military, of such raw materials, and to the source of supply and the likelihood of their disturbance in time of war. The committee does not support the recommendation of the Dominions Royal Commission for the establishment of a single development board to deal with the development of the imperial resources, and is of the opinion that more rapid progress would be made by dealing separately with a number of special commodities or groups of commodities. The committee also recommends the establishment of an intelligence and advisory bureau for securing and distributing information as to the needs and resources of the Empire in regard to minerals and metals of economic and military importance and for submitting proposals for the coordination of existing surveys and investigations along those lines.

On the subject of alien interests in the sources of supply within the British Empire, the committee is in favor of legislation to compel the disclosure of the extent of foreign holdings in any particular case, to safeguard against the securing of mineral and other properties by foreign concerns for the purpose of preventing their development and of checking competition in supply, and to enable, in the case of commodities of great imperial importance, the local governments concerned to exercise some measure of control over the working of the properties.

ESSENTIAL INDUSTRIES.

This subject was dealt with by the committee in an interim report of March 16, 1917, which covers the "key" or "pivotal" industries concerned with the following products: Synthetic dyes, spelter, tungsten, magnetos, optical and chemical glass, hosiery needles, thorium nitrate, barytes, limit and screw gauges, and drugs. In dealing with these industries the committee lays down the following general principles as a basis for their recommendations:

"In the first place a particular commodity or branch of production which is of great national importance at a given time may not continue to be so, and, on the other hand, new essential industries may emerge in the future.

"Secondly, the causes which have rendered British trade dependent upon the present enemy countries for the supply of particular commodities are by no means uniform, and the measures required to promote the various branches of industry involved may vary with each individual commodity. The problem will also be affected as new economic and political conditions arise and changes occur in the international situation.

"It seems to us to be certain that in the future industries of the nature dealt with in this report will always require special and separate consideration, and that no general measure will be sufficient to meet the varying requirements. Consequently, it is impossible to lay down permanent and uniform lines of State action in this connection; nor are we in a position to frame an exhaustive list of such industries as may from time to time call for exceptional treatment, or to elaborate in detail the precise measures which may be needed in each case. The special recommendations which we have made * * * may themselves

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require modification to meet the conditions which may actually exist after the war."

Under the circumstances the committee confines itself to the recommendation of the establishment of a special permanent board, to be associated with whatever department of State is intrusted with the care of the commercial and manufacturing interests of the country. The function of the board would be to watch the course of industrial development and to work out from time to time, when necessary, detailed schemes for the promotion and asssitance of industries concerned with the production of the special commodities indicated in the report. The recommendation of the board would be necessary for the granting of any State assistance or subsidy to any industry, and it would be the duty of the board to see to the maintenance of efficient and adequate production at reasonable prices on the part of the assisted industries. Assistance should be confined to industries which are entirely British. In cases where an industry is to be encouraged or protected by means of import restrictions, the board would be charged with the duty of issuing import licenses as well as of considering complaints as to the improper use of such form of State assistance or its detrimental effect on public interests. In case an efficient and adequate output of the required articles can not be secured by private efforts the Government itself should undertake their manufacture if they are essential for national safety.

TREATMENT OF ALIENS IN COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL UNDERTAKINGS.

The recommendations of the committee on this subject are to the effect that it would not be desirable to impose any special restrictions on the participation of aliens generally in commercial and industrial occupations in Great Britain, although it recognizes the necessity of imposing for a period after the war special restrictions upon the subjects of the present enemy countries. The committee believes that in the limited number of cases in which some restrictions or safeguards on alien activity may be necessary they can be insured by requiring disclosure of the facts. Subject to such temporary restrictions as may be necessary to impose upon subjects of the present enemy countries, the committee does not believe that it will be necessary or practicable, except possibly for a short period in special cases, to attempt to prevent present enemy subjects from establishing agencies or holding interests in commercial or industrial undertakings generally in Great Britain. The committee voices its particular opposition to any restrictions or discriminations as regards the use of London credit or of London insurance or reinsurance facilities.

INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATIONS.

Recognizing the widespead demand for a revision of the British industrial and commercial methods, due to the increasing intensity of foreign competition, especially on the part of those countries where there has been a strong tendency toward combination in regard to production and distribution, the committee expresses its opinion that in some important directions the individualistic methods hitherto in force should be supplemented or entirely replaced by cooperation and coordination in regard to securing supplies of material, production, and marketing. Associations for general trade purposes are also regarded as very desirable for all important industries, and the opinion is expressed that the Government should give every encouragement to the combination of manufacturers for the purpose of securing supplies of raw materials. While recognizing that the formation of organizations for foreign trade will stimulate combinations for controlling the domestic market, the committee believed that it would be inexpedient for the Government to enter upon

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any policy aiming at positive control of combinations in Great Britain, but that it would be desirable to have some Government department secure information in regard to combinations, and that investigation by the State should be resorted to in special cases. The committee is also of the opinion that, where necessary, combinations should be legalized so as to be enforceable between members.

FINANCIAL FACILITIES FOR TRADE.

The committee is opposed to the establishment of any State-guaranteed institution for the purpose of financing trade and industry and believes that under normal conditions the financial needs of British industry are likely to be attended to better by private banking enterprise than by a State-controlled institution. The existing control of capital issues should, in the opinion of the committee, be relaxed as rapidly as circumstances permit, except in so far as loans to foreign Governments are concerned. The committee believes that the remedy for the shortage of capital after the war is to be found in increased production and saving and recommends the avoidance of wasteful expenditures by the Government and the extension of taxation of luxuries.

FISCAL POLICY.

In view of the long agitation for tariff reform in Great Britain and the prominence given to the tariff question in the resolutions of the Paris Economic Conference, the recommendations of the committee in regard to fiscal policy deserve particular attention. As a basis for the future economic policy of Great Britain the committee lays down the following propositions: (1) Government encouragement for industries of a "pivotal" character or for those of military importance but not of sufficient commercial importance to be developed without State assistance; (2) Government assistance to other industries which are important for the maintenance of the industrial position of the United Kingdom but which need such assistance on account of undue foreign competition, inadequate supplies of raw materials, or any other cause; (3) a serious attempt to meet the wishes of the Dominions and colonies for the readjustment of their economic relations with the United Kingdom; (4) an effort to develop the trade between the British Empire and the Allies; (5) at least temporary discrimination against present enemy countries in the matter of trade with the British Empire.

In regard to the question of antidumping legislation, the committee points out that there is a general opinion in favor of such legislation in the committees appointed by the Board of Trade and recommends that some legislation similar to the antidumping provision of the Canadian tariff be adopted, but that the special duty should equal the full difference between the selling price and the fair market value, instead of being restricted to a maximum of 15 per cent ad valorem, as is the case in Canada.

The committee expresses its opposition to the introduction of a comprehensive tariff scheme covering the whole range of imports into the United Kingdom on the following grounds:

" (1) A claim for protection can not, in our opinion, normally be regarded as valid unless the industry which makes it can show either that in spite of the adoption of the most efficient technical methods and business organization it can not maintain itself against foreign competition, or that the attainment of such maximum efficiency is impracticable, owing to the feeling of insecurity and the inability to attain a sufficiently large scale of production in face of competition from abroad. Among the industries which ask for protection by means

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of customs duties there are some which are admittedly deficient in technique and equipment and defective in management and organization, and in regard to these there is some danger that the grant of the desired protection might result in the stereotyping of inefficient methods.

"(2) There are some large branches of production, of which the main branches of the cotton trade are conspicuous examples, in which there is no demand for any measure of protection.

"(3) There are a number of industries engaged in the production of commodities which are in the nature of luxuries, or at least nonessentials, and we are of the opinion that, whilst these may properly be made the subject of duties imposed for the purpose of raising revenue or checking the consumption of luxuries, there is no sufficient ground for the imposition in their case of duties primarily intended to be protective. The primary object of State policy should be the development of industries of importance to the national security and well-being, such as those we have discussed in Chapter V [essential industries], and the great staple industries of the country, and any State action directed toward the indiscriminate maintenance of a number of industries which do not contribute appreciably or at all toward the increase of national wealth would, we think, be economically unsound.

"(4) The general tendency of import duties is in the first instance to raise prices, this being the way in which they primarily stimulate production. Their effect in this direction will, as a rule, vary with the intensity of the public demand for goods of any class subject to protective duties and the proportion of the dutiable to the nondutiable supplies, and, in so far as they may stimulate and cheapen production from nondutiable sources, they may gradually bring about a decline in prices. But at the outset they may raise prices, and though it may be in the national interest to pay a somewhat higher price for commodities in order to have a measure of security against the cutting off or shortage of supplies in time of war or to prevent the establishment of a monopoly in the hands of foreigners in time of peace, it appears to us that, both on general grounds and particularly having regard to the high level of prices likely to prevail for some time after the war, any State action likely to raise prices, even temporarily, for any commodities of national importance should be confined within the closest possible limits.

"(5) Regard must, however, be had in this connection to the great importance of maintaining British export trade in neutral markets. Competition in those markets, particularly in the Far East, will, after the war, inevitably be severe; but the representative merchants who gave evidence to us expressed confidence that, upon the whole, British trade would be able to hold its own as soon as existing restrictions are removed, provided that the cost of production in this country is not unduly increased as compared with the cost of production in competing countries, and they urged that, so far as possible, any Government action which might have the effect of raising the prices of export commodities should be avoided.

"It must also be borne in mind that the reexport trade of the United Kingdom amounted in the years 1909–1913 to no less than £107,000,000 annually on the average, and that, however elaborate a system of drawbacks might be devised, it would be difficult under a comprehensive tariff to avoid the placing of hindrances upon this important branch of British commerce.

"(6) We deal in later sections of this chapter with the suggestion that a comprehensive tariff is necessary for the purpose of giving preferential treatment to India, the British dominions and possessions, and our allies, and also for purposes of negotiation with foreign countries. It will be sufficient to say

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in this place that we think that a more limited tariff could be used equally well, though not so extensively, for the accord of preferences, that the trade between the United Kingdom and the British Empire overseas can be promoted by other means also, and that a tariff for negotiation is a two-edged weapon which is not as effective as is frequently supposed."

Realizing the possibility of a widespread demand for protection and political pressure which may arise as a result of the admission of the principle of protection even to a limited extent, the committee recommends the establishment of a strong and competent board, with an independent status, to pass upon applications for State assistance, to advise the Government upon such applications, and to frame proposals as to the precise nature and extent of the assistance to be given. It is suggested that before recommending assistance in the form of tariff protection the board should consider other forms of State assistance to take the place of protective duties or to supplement them, and should also make recommendations for safeguarding the interests of the consumers and of labor.

The final conclusions in regard to fiscal policy are stated by the committee as follows:

"1. The producers of this country are entitled to require from the Government that they should be protected in their home market against 'dumping,' as we have previously defined it, and against the introduction of 'sweated goods,' by which term we understand goods produced by labor which is not paid at trade-union rates of wages where such rates exist in the country of origin of the goods, or the current rates of that country where there are no trade-union rates. We recommend that legislative action be taken in regard to 'dumping' on the lines (though not necessarily in the precise form) adopted in Canada.

"We agree that it will often be difficult to distinguish between 'dumping' and cheap production and between cheap production and 'sweating,' but it will be the duty of our trade representatives in foreign countries to investigate and report upon these matters, and reliance must be placed upon the cooperation of manufacturers in this country, so that the operations of the customs officials may be intelligently directed to stop these unfair forms of trading.

"2. These industries which we have already described as 'key' or 'pivotal' should be maintained in this country at all hazards and at any expense. No ordinary economic rules apply to the situation of these minor but important industries. They must be kept alive either by loans, by subsidy, by tariff, by Government contracts, or in the last event by Government manufacture. They will necessarily be subject to Government supervision.

"3. As regards other industries, protection by means of customs duties or Government assistance in other forms should be afforded only to carefully selected branches of production, which must be maintained either for reasons of national safety or on the general ground that it is undesirable that any industry of real importance to our economic strength or well-being should be allowed to be weakened by foreign competition or brought to any serious extent in this or any other ways under alien domination or control.

"4. Preferential treatment should be accorded to the British oversea dominions and possessions in respect of any customs duties now or hereafter to be imposed in the United Kingdom, and consideration should be given to the expediency of other forms of imperial preference.

"5. As regards our commercial relations with our present allies and with neutrals, the denunciation of existing commercial treaties for the purpose of affording special treatment to such of our allies or of the neutrals as might be disposed to make reciprocal concessions is unnecessary and inexpedient. But

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the present opportunity should be taken to endeavor to promote our trade with the allies, and consideration should be given to the possibility of utilizing for purposes of negotiation with them and present neutrals any duties which may be imposed in accordance with the principles which we have laid down above."

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES AND COINAGE.

After due consideration of a number of proposals for the alteration of the British system of weights and measures, such as the compulsory adoption of the metric system and the decimalization of the existing weights and measures, the committee expresses its opposition to the compulsory adoption of the metric system on the ground that it might seriously hamper British trade after the war. It is also opposed to any compulsory legislation for the simplification and decimalization of the present system of weights and measures at the present time, but recommends a continuation of the efforts toward simplification in the teaching of weights and measures and the use of decimal subdivision of basic weights, such as the cental of 100 pounds instead of the hundredweight (112 pounds) and the short ton of 2,000 pounds. The committee recognizes the value of the proposal for the decimalization of the sovereign, which would be divided into 1,000 mils, the mil being worth 4 per cent less than the farthing. It believes, however, that considering "the magnitude of the disturbance which the alteration in the value of the penny would cause in the lives of the great body of wage earners, retail shopkeepers, and their customers * * * the introduction of such a change would be inexpedient at a time when the social, industrial, and financial organization of the country will be faced with numerous and exceptional difficulties."

Appendix C.—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS (TEMPORARY CONTROL) BILL.

MEMORANDUM.

The practical effect of the present bill is to simplify and continue for a period of three years after the termination of the present war the powers which His Majesty has exercised during the war as regards the control of imports and exports. Otherwise these powers would to a great extent lapse as soon as a state of war ceases to exist.

The present powers of His Majesty as to prohibiting the importation and exportation of goods are as follows:

(1) Under section 43 of the Customs Consolidation Act he has power by Proclamation or Order in Council to prohibit the importation of any goods, but not to prohibit the importation of goods of any specified origin.

(2) Under section 8 of the Customs and Inland Revenue Act, 1879, he has power to prohibit absolutely the exportation of certain specified goods (arms, &c., and food), and this power has been extended by the Customs (Exportation Prohibition) Act, 1914, to all goods of any description, *but the extension has effect only while a state of war exists.*

(3) Under the Exportation of Arms Act, 1900, he has power (when for specific reasons he deems it expedient) to prohibit the exportation of arms, &c., to any country or place named in the order, and this power has been extended *while a state of war exists* (*a*) to the exportation of all goods of any description, by the Customs (Exportation Restriction) Act, 1914; and (*b*) to the exportation of goods to any such country or place unless consigned to particular individuals, by the Customs (Exportation Restriction) Act, 1915.

The restriction of imports and exports is in practice subject in all cases to any license which may be granted to import or export.

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The extension of the law above referred to has effect only whilst a state of war exists. The result is that immediately the war terminates there will be no power (1) to prohibit importation of goods of a particular origin; or (2) to prohibit exportation except in the case of certain specified classes of goods; and most of the proclamations and orders relating to exports which have been made during the war, under the above-mentioned acts, will cease to have effect.

A BILL To continue, with modifications, for a limited period after the termination of the present war, certain powers in relation to imports and exports.

Be it enacted by the King's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lord Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

1. (1) The Lords of the Council on the recommendation of the Board of Trade may by order prohibit the importation or exportation of goods of any class, description, or origin, or produced or manufactured in whole or in part in any country or place specified in the order, either generally or from or to any country or place named in the order, subject in either case to such exceptions (if any) as may be specified in the order, and to any licenses the grant of which may be authorized by the order.

(2) Any order made under this section may be revoked, varied, or added to by any subsequent order made by the Lords of the Council on the recommendation of the Board of Trade.

(3) Any proclamation, or order in or of Council, made during the present war, and in force immediately before the termination thereof, prohibiting or restricting the importation or exportation of goods, shall, as from the said termination, continue in force and have effect as though it were an order made under this section, subject, however, to any licenses which may be in force at the said termination or which may thereafter be granted, and may be revoked, varied, or added to as hereinbefore provided.

(4) This section shall have effect as though it were included in the Customs Consolidation Act, 1876, and the provisions of that Act, and of any Act amending or extending that Act, shall apply accordingly, and if any goods prohibited to be exported by any order made under this Act are exported from the United Kingdom in contravention of the order or brought to any quay or other place to be shipped for the purpose of being so exported or waterborne to be so exported, the exporter or his agent shall be liable to the same penalty as that to which a person is liable under section one hundred and eighty-six of that Act for illegally importing prohibited goods.

(5) The powers conferred by this section shall be in addition to and not in derogation of any powers of His Majesty whether conferred by statute or otherwise.

2. (1) This Act may be cited as the Imports and Exports (Temporary Control) Act, 1917.

(2) This Act shall continue in operation until the expiration of a period of three years after the termination of the present war.

Appendix D.—THE BRITISH NONFERROUS METAL INDUSTRY ACT.

[From Commerce Reports, Apr. 1, 1918.]

The passage of the Nonferrous Metal Industry Act which was introduced in the House of Commons in November, 1917, and received royal assent on February 6, 1918, marks another step in British preparations for trade after the war of almost equal importance with the Imports and Exports (Temporary

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Control) Bill of 1917. The subtitle, "An act to restrict temporarily the persons who may engage in business connected with certain nonferrous metals and metallic ores," indicates the purpose of the measure, but its effect can not be predicted owing to the broad scope of the discretionary powers conferred upon the Board of Trade. Under the terms of the act, August 6, 1918, is the date on which its provisions are to be enforced, unless postponed by the Board, with duration for the period of the war and for five years after its close. The metals and ores to which the act applies are zinc, copper, tin, lead, nickel, aluminum, and any other nonferrous metals and ores which the Board of Trade may name by later order.

Article 1, section 1, provides as follows:

"It shall not be lawful for any company, firm, or individual after the expiration of six months from the passing of this act, or such longer period as the Board of Trade may generally or in any particular case allow, to carry on the business of winning, extracting, smelting, dressing, refining, or dealing by way of wholesale trade in metal or metallic ore to which this act applies, unless licensed to do so by the Board of Trade * * *."

Purchase and sale of metal which are only incidental to the trade of the person concerned are not to be considered dealing in such metal for the purposes of the act. Transactions carried on wholly outside of the United Kingdom are also exempted from the effects of this measure.

GROUNDS FOR REFUSAL OF LICENSE.

By section 2 of article 1 the Board of Trade is authorized to refuse licenses to a company, firm, or individual "to which any of the conditions set forth in the first schedule to this act apply, or which is controlled by a company, firm, or individual in respect of which any such conditions apply." In all other cases licenses are to be granted upon application in the prescribed form and after certain other requirements are fulfilled, including the furnishing of information and the payment of a small fee.

The six conditions stated in the first schedule define various degrees of enemy connection which will justify the refusal of a license to a company, firm, or individual to carry on manufacture or trade in metals. The board of trade may, if expedient, make an exception in particular cases. The first condition is:

"1. That any director of the company, or any partner of the firm, or the individual, or any manager or other principal officer employed by the company, firm, or individual is a person who is or has been a subject of a State which is now at war with His Majesty, or an enemy controlled corporation."

The extent of the possible effects of the act can be estimated from an examination of the remaining conditions, of which No. 5 appears to be the most general:

"2. That in the case of a company, any capital of the company is or was at any time after the 12th day of November, 1917, held by or on behalf of an enemy, including any stock or shares of the company vested in the custodian by virtue of any order made under the Trading-with-the-Enemy Acts, 1914 to 1916.

"3. That the company, firm, or individual is or was at any time after the 12th day of November, 1917, party to any agreement, arrangement, or understanding, which enables or enabled an enemy to influence the policy or conduct of the business.

"4. That the company, firm, or individual is or was at any time after the 12th day of November, 1917, interested directly or indirectly, to the extent of one-fifth or more of the capital profits or voting power in any undertaking whether or not in the United Kingdom, engaged in business of a kind to which this act applies, in which enemies are also interested, directly or indirectly, to the extent of one-fifth or more of the capital profits or voting power.

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"5. That the company, firm, or individual is by any means whatever subject, directly or indirectly, in the conduct of their or his business to enemy influence or association.

"6. That in the case of a company, the company has issued share warrants to bearer and has not given notice under this act requiring the holders of the share warrants to surrender their warrants for cancellation."

FURTHER PROVISIONS.

A license once granted may be revoked upon production of new evidence of enemy connection, or without new evidence in the case of a firm which has been licensed by special dispensation. Rules for the settlement of disputed points between the Board of Trade and the applicant are provided by section 5 of article 1. Powers granted to the Board include the securing of information from officers, shareholders, or others within a stated time, and the inspection of books or documents, both before and after the granting of a license (art. 2).

Offenses and penalties are set forth in article 3. Companies carrying on businesses affected by the act are required, according to article 4, to recall any "bearer" shares which they may have issued and to demand that the holders of these shares have their names entered in the register. Bearer securities or shares are those which carry voting power in the management of the company. The safeguarding of information obtained, the authorization to establish rules for the enforcement of the act, evidence of the authenticity of documents, and declarations as to the actual ownership of shares are covered by articles 5 to 8.

RULES FOR ADMINISTRATION OF THE ACT.

Among the rules adopted by the Board of Trade with the concurrence of the Treasury, which were published in the Board of Trade Journal for March 7, is a statement of the quantities of metals which are exempt from the effects of the provisions regarding wholesale dealings (art. 1, sec. 1). The quantities thus permitted in transactions during quarterly periods are less than 25 tons of zinc, copper, and lead, and less than 5 tons of tin, nickel, and aluminum. Equivalents of these amounts in the form of ores or concentrates are included.

Metal is defined to mean metal in any form whatsoever as it leaves the furnace or refinery unwrought, also scrap and swarf of all sorts for remelting. The application of the act to any additional nonferrous metals and ores beside the six kinds named above is to be announced at least one month in advance of its effectiveness.

Before a license is refused, revoked, or suspended by the Board an opportunity is to be furnished to the applicant to show cause why such action should not be taken.

In making application for a permit the applicant must furnish full details regarding the business concerned. These include among others the date on which the business was established or registered, list of places where it is carried on, and of all foreign branches, names, and nationality of all members and officers connected with the organization since August 1, 1914, number of shareholders, and amount of stock held by each, and declaration as to any connection with enemy firms dealing in nonferrous metals and ores. Statements are required of any change of name or nationality by persons connected with the business as a means of preventing concealment of enemy nationality. Forms for application for the license and for hearing in protest to the Board are provided.

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 74

WEARING APPAREL IN PERU

Prepared by

WILLIAM F. MONTAVON
Commercial Attaché

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, November 16, 1918.

SIR: There is submitted herewith a report on wearing apparel in Peru, by William F. Montavon, commercial attaché at Lima. The sale of ready-made clothing in Peru has been handicapped by the existing preference for tailor-made suits; but American ready-made clothing is generally superior to the product of Peruvian tailors, and if this superiority is demonstrated by an intelligent advertising campaign there should be a market for imported suits. Imports of wearing apparel of all kinds in 1916 amounted to only $1,400,000, of which hosiery and men's shirts represented almost half. In both these important items and in other specialties the United States is very strong in the market. Many American products are well and favorably known and are purchased on their merits; but in certain lines the present strength of the United States is based largely on Germany's weakness under war conditions, and it will have to find a more solid foundation in American enterprise if it is to endure.

Respectfully,

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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WEARING APPAREL IN PERU.

INTRODUCTION.

Except that portion of the population that has been educated abroad, chiefly in France and England, or in the colleges in Lima modeled after the French schools and much influenced by French ideals, the people in Peru do not buy imported ready-to-wear garments. This is particularly true of garments for outer wear. Men in Peru prefer custom-made clothing and only the very poor and the Indians purchase the coarse ready-made garments produced in the small local factories or in the homes of their employees. Well-dressed women in Peru have for many years imported their gowns and suits by parcel post from Paris. This trade had acquired considerable importance before the war and was sufficient to warrant several of the best Parisian factories in maintaining branch offices in Lima with full lines of samples. The tastes vary so much, however, and the clients are so exacting that none of these agencies has found it profitable to carry an extensive stock in ready-made gowns or suits. The men and women of the laboring class have felt that imported garments would be too expensive for them and have acquired the habit of making their own clothing or having it made by local seamstresses.

The market for men's shirts, collars, underwear, and hosiery and for plain lingerie and shirt waists and to a more limited degree for wash dresses for women and children is well developed in Lima and such provincial cities as Arequipa, Cerro de Pasco, and Trujillo; but in other interior points the only ready-made clothing offered is the output of the little shops of Lima, which is distributed through peddlers who periodically visit the country markets.

Goods of American manufacture have made a good start in this field. American shirts and collars, corsets, shirt waists, boys' suits for summer, fabric underwear, etc., are well received and should be able to retain their place in the face of any competition that may come with the end of the war. American knit goods, except the better grades of hosiery, seem unable to compete with the high-grade goods that come from Spain and France. The low-priced goods from the United States are not well finished and the high-grade articles are too expensive.

Patient and persevering effort could probably create a considerable demand for children's suits, for wash dresses of all kinds, for well-finished separate skirts, and in the end for high-grade ready-to-wear suits for men and women. To do this the American manufacturer will have to open his own retail establishment in Lima, as the French have done, and he will have to guarantee his goods for both

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workmanship and fit and bring their quality up to the standard set by the local tailors. The present retailers are prejudiced against ready-made clothing and can not be depended upon to give it the backing that it must have if it is to be successfully introduced. The American exporter will have to create his market by establishing his own retail store and giving his direct personal attention to the advertising campaign by which he expects to make his goods popular.

The capacity of this market for imported goods is growing and will continue to grow in proportion as the conditions of employment and the general standard of living and education improve. Its growth is slow but dependable. Any advantages at present existing are in favor of the American exporter. There is no discrimination against American goods, sentiment is in the favor of American trade, and on the whole conditions, both material and moral, favor the American exporter as compared with any other foreign exporter to Peru.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

Peru occupies that part of the Pacific coast of South America between 3° 25′ and 18° south latitude. The greatest length from north to south is approximately 1,100 miles, and the total area is variously estimated at 600,000 to 720,000 square miles. Peru is bounded on the north by the Republic of Ecuador, on the east by Brazil and Bolivia, and on the south by Chile. Its boundary on the west is formed by the Pacific Ocean.

The territory of Peru is divided into 17 Departments, each of which comprises several provinces. The exact boundary lines between Peru and the neighboring Republics have not been determined by careful survey, and a large part of the area is the subject of international controversy at the present time. This territory is mostly on the eastern side of the Andes and is but sparsely populated. Although it comprises thousands of acres of fertile lands whose potential productivity is considerable, it has no practical interest in connection with a study of Peru as a market for American manufactured articles. Tacna, which was ceded conditionally to Chile by the treaty of Ancon when the War of the Pacific (1879–1883) was concluded and which has remained under Chilean administration since that time, is included in Peruvian official maps as national territory of Peru.

The great Andean Range, commonly spoken of as the Cordillera Real, has its origin in the extreme south in the region of the Strait of Magellan and extending northward, traverses the entire length of the American continent. This range attains its greatest height in some of the peaks of Peru. There are 11 distinct ranges, which, lying at various angles with the general south to north direction of the Cordillera, traverse Peru in every direction and make of it one of the most mountainous countries of the earth. The loftiest summits rise high above the snow line and several attain to an altitude of 20,000 feet or more. The loftiest of these is the Huascan, in latitude 8° 30′ S. In the south of Peru are a number of giant volcanoes. Misti, the most renowned of these, rises, a perfect cone, to an altitude of nearly 20,000 feet, and its crown of perpetual snow dominates the beautiful and fertile valley of Arequipa, in which the interesting city of that name is located.

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Peru is divisible into three physiographic zones, which run more or less parallel with one another and with the coast. They are the coastal region, the mountainous division, and the montaña.

The coastal region lies between the western base of the Andes and the Pacific Ocean. In places the mountains extend right down to the sea, while elsewhere they recede to some distance. The current of the Humboldt Stream, however, has gone on for many generations wearing away the coast lines of Peru and nowhere does the coastal region attain to a very considerable width. It is estimated that the average width of this region is not more than 20 miles.

As a result of the combined influences of the cold waters of the ocean streams that wash the shores of Peru and the lofty mountains covered with perpetual snow that cut the coastal region off from the tropical region of the upper Amazon, western Peru is for the most part an arid desert, where the rainfall is extremely light. The soil of this region possesses unusual fertility and becomes most productive whenever water is available for irrigation.

The coastal plain is intersected at intervals by fertile valleys extending well into the foothills and watered by the melting snows on the distant peaks. The water is spread out over the fertile fields and these valleys are covered with beautiful vegetation. In all these are to be found wide expanses of vineyards, fruit gardens, and olive groves, while in the larger valleys cotton and sugar are cultivated on an extensive scale. In spite of the uninviting aspect of the Peruvian coast as it is seen from the ship's deck by the average person who visits the west coast of South America, agriculture is the chief industry of Peru and agricultural products are by far the most important among the exports of the country. Except a small cattle industry in the sierra, practically all the agriculture of Peru is in the coastal region.

The sierra, or mountainous, division, which comprises the region of the high Andes, consisting of the Maritime, Central, and Eastern or Oriental Cordilleras, is a region of vast extent, made up of lofty mountain spurs, elevated valleys, and deep ravines. Much of this region, located at altitudes many thousand feet above the level of the sea, is that cold and inhospitable tract to which has been given the name of puña or the paramos. Located at elevations of 13,000 feet or more, the paramos are for the most part devoid of vegetation. A brownish green bunch grass thrives in spots that are well watered and protected from the bleak winds characteristic of the region, and provides pasture for herds of llama, alpaca, and sheep in central and southern Peru and for cattle in the northern Departments, which, being nearer the Equator, enjoy a climate somewhat less severe. In the southeastern part of the country and extending into Bolivia, is the interesting basin of Lake Titicaca, the surface of which is 12,500 feet above the level of the sea. Commodious steamers ply on this lake between the ports of Puno in Peru and Guaqui in Bolivia and make of Lake Titicaca the highest navigated body of water in the world.

The third natural region of Peru is the montaña, from the Spanish word monte, meaning a forest, wood, or thicket. The Eastern Cordillera breaks off abruptly, and within a few miles of the inhospitable paramos and the snow-covered peaks of the eastern Andes is the

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warm woodland, a vast tropical region extending into Ecuador, Brazil, and Bolivia and containing the headwaters of the great Amazon River system. Between the highlands and the tropical valleys there stretch unexplored rolling lands of vast extent, a great uninhabited empire with climate and soil adapted to cattle raising and to the cultivation of grain. This region remains untapped by railways. Its inhabitants consist of a few uncivilized Indians, with here and there a lone ranch as an outpost of civilization, and its development must await the pressure of population, which has not yet begun to be felt in this vast region, though it contains some of the best lands yet available for colonization. Forest products, wild rubber, cinchona bark, dyewoods, valuable roots, and fibers are gathered by the Indians of the lowlands under the management of a few hardy men and reach the centers of the world's consumption by voyaging many days in small steamers down the Amazon to the Atlantic or by being carried on the backs of men and beasts to the railroads that reach the crest of the Cordillera or to the boats that navigate on Lake Titicaca. Interesting as this vast region is because of its promise to future generations of settlers, it can be given but passing notice in a report on the present-day market for a highly developed line of manufactures.

Many miles off the western coast of Peru in mid-ocean and submerged beneath the sea, there seems to be a second great range of mountains running parallel to the Cordillera Real of the Andes. Some of the loftiest peaks of this submerged range appear above the water and form such groups as the Galapagos Islands in Ecuador and several less important groups in Peru, some of which have not yet been fully explored. Between these two immense mountain systems there flows a great ocean current to which the name of Peruvian current or Humboldt Stream has been given. Having its origin in the cold regions of the Antarctic and flowing northward with great velocity, the waters of this stream are still cold when they reach the latitude of Peru and give to the Peruvian coast its delightfully cool climate.

CLIMATE AND AGRICULTURE.

Although Peru occupies a region lying between the Tropic of Capricorn to the south and the Equator, its climate and natural products are very different from those found in other tropical regions, such as Brazil, which lies in the same latitude as Peru and is separated from that country by the Andean Cordilleras. Brazil does not fall under the influence of the lofty mountain system that cuts off from Peru the moisture-laden winds from the east and interferes with the movements of the clouds.

To the west of the Cordillera, that is, throughout the region that extends over the western slopes of the Andes and reaches down to the sea, the lands are arid, or, at best, support only a scanty vegetation. To the east of the Cordillera there extends a vast region of forest lands and plains suitable for cultivation. From the summit of the Cordillera Real down to the first tablelands in the sierra life is rendered almost impossible by the cold; this is a regon of perpetual snow and of rugged precipices. Throughout the lower puña barley and certain hardy vegetables can be grown, and life is pos-

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sible for both man and beast. The climate is cold; the rainfall is continuous and abundant. In the region of these tablelands are the sources of the great rivers of Peru. In the lower plain of the sierra the conditions of life become less difficult, potatoes and corn grow profusely, and the population is more dense.

The progress of civilization has been slow throughout the sierra and the population consists mostly of Indians who eke out a miserable livelihood on their poorly cultivated chaoras, the name by which their small lands are known. There are not wanting, however, progressive and enlightened men in these regions, who by their industry and intelligence have developed magnificent ranches, upon which are to be found great herds of well-kept cattle and sheep or fields producing an excellent quality of wheat and other grains. The agricultural wealth of the Peruvian sierra remains yet to be demonstrated, however, and no one to-day can foresee the results that may be achieved by the application here of modern methods of cultivation and the introduction of labor-saving devices.

The mountains break abruptly away from the sierra and forming deep ravines and pockets, reach the coast. These ravines and pockets, some of which, as that of Chicama in northern Peru, attain considerable size, have a soil of wonderful fertility and a climate that favors to a degree not met with elsewhere the growing of such valuable crops as sugar cane and cotton.

A prevailing wind from the southwest tends to pile sand up along the coast of Peru and destroy all vegetation that might be visible from aboard ship; but a few miles back from the coast the land is fertile, and the climate is unusually favorable to the growing of useful crops, which are produced in abundance wherever water can be made available for agriculture. Cotton, rice, and sugar cane are grown in ever increasing quantities. In addition to these staple crops, a great variety of vegetables and grains are grown, and cattle thrive on lands located a few thousand feet above the level of the sea. In some of the valleys the water that comes from the melting snow on the mountains is not sufficient for the irrigation of all the land that might otherwise be made productive. Much of the water is lost by absorption into the porous soil of the valleys and the foothills. Of late years the volume of water available for irrigation has been increased by sinking wells to the subterranean flow, which is found practically everywhere in the coastal plain at a depth varying from 25 to 100 feet and is almost inexhaustible. Peru then is not the barren waste seen from the decks of steamers voyaging from Panama to Valparaiso. Only a few miles inland from such apparently inhospitable ports as Paita, Eten, Pacasmayo, Salaverry, and Pisco there are to be found thriving cities of 20,000 to 50,000 population, which are agricultural and distributing centers of considerable importance.

CLASSES OF POPULATION AND THEIR NEEDS.

The latest census of Peru was taken many years ago, and there has not been made an accurate estimate of the numerical strength or social condition of the population for several decades. The population is estimated to be about 4,000,000. Of this number probably not less than half are Indians of the Quichua and Aymara races. In the tropical valleys at the headwaters of the rivers of the Amazon system

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in eastern Peru, there are the remnants of several tribes of wild men, who roam in the forests, though they are gradually disappearing as civilization and industrial progrss find their way into these regions by the route of the Amazon River. The sierra is the natural habitat of the Quichua and the Aymara. In prehistoric ages these quaint people, who have been tenacious of their racial customs and characteristics, were organized into great rival empires; and there are still to be found in the valleys of the sierra, especially in the vicinity of the cities of Cajamarca and Cuzco, which were the political capitals of the rival empires, evidences of the power and prosperity and social organization to which these peoples had attained through the centuries preceding the arrival of Pizarro and the first Spanish conquistadores.

Large numbers of the Indians of the sierra are employed in the mines, which are located for the most part in the higher region of the puña. They are said to be indifferent laborers and the wages that they are able to earn, even under the most favorable conditions, are barely enough to support the poorest kind of existence. The purchasing power of this large element of the population is so small that the sierra can not be given the importance in the report of this character which it would seem to deserve because of its area and the number of its inhabitants.

The sierra is the land of the shawl and the poncho. The universal garment is the shawl crudely woven from homespun wool, in which color effects are produced by a careful sorting of the various colored wools as they are taken from the sheep and in the weaving of which no manufactured article, not even artificial dyes, is made use of. It is worn in blanket fashion by the women and girls and in poncho fashion by the men. The Indians who have been able to accumulate even a small amount of funds are inclined to be extravagant, and invest in shawls and ponchos woven of the fine vicuña and alpaca hair, for which they not infrequently pay as much as $25 or even $50.

While it might be possible to develop in the Peruvian sierra a market for factory-made ponchos and shawls, at present there is little or no demand for any imported clothing other than the coarsest cotton garments, or coarse cotton and woolen goods to be used in the manufacture of such garments.

Several of the more important mining companies conduct general stores for the convenience of their employees and the people living in the vicinity of the mines. In the city of Cerro de Pasco, where there are more signs of material comfort than elsewhere in the sierra, there are similar stores operated by private individuals, in which a fair assortment of ready-made clothing is for sale. These stocks consist largely of woolen and cotton underwear, shirts, sweaters, socks, hats and caps, and coarse trousers and blouses. Much of these goods is manufactured either on the spot or at Lima, and only the better grades are imported. The mines maintain a purchasing agency in New York City, which purchases the bulk of the imported goods sold in these company stores. It would probably be possible, however, for an enterprising agent to develop a trade in the mining centers along the central railway of Peru that would warrant an annual visit to this territory from Lima.

There are probably a score of small factories in Lima in which coarse clothing is made for sale to the people of the sierra. In these

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factories coarse cotton suits, consisting of a coat and trousers, and coarse shirts and collars are the chief product. Peddlers are sent into the sierra to attend the ferias, that is, the weekly markets, with stocks of these goods and to sell them to the small retailers, who are found on every plaza and in every village of the Peruvian highlands. The volume of this business is considerable in the aggregate; but the difficulties to be met and the narrow margin of profit on which it must be conducted make it a class of business that would not attract large manufacturers.

The population of the coastal region of Peru differs widely from that of the sierra just described. A large number of laborers employed on the cotton and especially on the sugar plantations are Indians enlisted in the sierra and brought down to the coast under contract; but an even more important factor of the labor supply is the Negro and Chinese elements and the half-castes descended from the intermarriage of these with the Indian women. Stimulated by a superior climate and living in an environment less inhospitable than that of the sierra, the population of the coastal region is more ambitious, more progressive, and in general more highly developed socially and economically than that of the sierra. Many of the plantation owners dwell with their families on the lands that they cultivate. The hacienda (plantation) houses are frequently surrounded by a considerable group of homes occupied by superintendents and other employees and are the center around which revolves the social life of prosperous and highly interesting communities.

PRINCIPAL CITIES.

In the larger valleys and the more important agricultural centers, cities with a population of 25,000 to 100,000 have grown up and some of these offer a very good market for practically all kinds of manufactured goods, especially for hardware, textiles, cutlery, and clothing. Among these may be mentioned the prosperous city of Piura in the north of the country. Paita is the seaport through which the products of Piura and the surrounding country are shipped and the imports received. Piura is the center of a prosperous trade in a peculiar variety of long-staple cotton, commonly spoken of as Peruvian rough cotton. This cotton is of such a character that it mixes readily with wools in the manufacture of certain kinds of textiles, and, as a result, it is much sought after by the manufacturers of cheap woolen goods. There is a decided atmosphere of comfort and prosperity at Piura, and salesmen representing large importing firms with headquarters in Lima make regular visits to this district. Several of these firms, especially those that combine an export with the import business, have branch offices at Piura or Paita and carry stocks and samples of their staple lines of imports.

Situated only a short distance to the south of Piura is the thriving city of Chiclayo in the Lanbayeque Valley. During a period of about five months there is an abundant supply of water for irrigation in this section, but during the remainder of the year the rivers are dry. As a result, the short-season crop of rice is the chief product for export, and there are several rice-hulling mills in the vicinity. There is water enough in the interior to support large herds of cattle, and the exportation of cattle on the hoof and of hides adds to

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the bulk of the business done at Chiclayo and at Eten and Pimentel, the seaports through which the products of Chiclayo reach the outside world.

In addition to the rice grown in this vicinity, the valleys around Chiclayo produce considerable quantities of sugar. There are in all five important sugar plantations in this section. Two of these have modern mills and equipment. There is still possibility of considerable increase in the acreage of sugar, and this valley, as well as several others, would seem to present an excellent field for a large sugar central.

South of Eten and distant, by water, only six to eight hours is the port of Pacasmayo in the Jequetepeque Valley. In prehistoric times this valley was the scene of a great civilization and many thousands of people dwelt and prospered on the shores of the Jequetepeque. By the slow processes of nature the plains have slowly risen above the coast and the waters, which at one time flowed on the surface, are found to-day only at considerable depths beneath the pampa. Enough water flows in the stream to make possible the growing of short-season crops, and the chief products here are rice and beans. Many thousands of acres of fertile land in this valley await the courageous investor to make water available for their irrigation, after which they will add many thousand tons to the sugar and cotton crops annually exported from Peru.

At some distance from the coast and well up in the sierra lies the city of Cajamarca, once the capital of a prosperous Inca empire. Cajamarca lies in the midst of a beautiful rolling country; the soil is fertile and with proper tillage could be made very productive; the climate is ideal; and in spite of the fact that no railway or well-graded highway connects this interesting inland city with the seacoast, Cajamarca is the center of a quaint but prosperous population of not less than 200,000 and is a market of considerable importance for imported manufactures. Because of the fact that much of the land about Cajamarca is adapted to growing wheat and raising cattle there is a tendency to press the extension of the Eten-Chiclayo Railway until it enters this region and makes possible economical transport to the sea. At present, the volume of probable business is too small at Cajamarca to warrant a visit from any foreign commercial traveler on a purely selling trip; the territory is satisfactorily covered by importers making their headquarters at Chiclayo or even at Lima.

The next port to the south is Salaverry. From this point the bulk of Peruvian sugar and tungsten is shipped. The fertile Valley of Chicama lies inland from the port of Salaverry. Here is located the beautiful provincial capital city of Trujillo, where the traveler is made comfortable and where a considerable trade is carried on in imported manufactures, mining and agricultural machinery, sugar-milling apparatus, preserved foods, clothing and textiles, automobiles, etc. Trujillo is a flourishing city and lies in the midst of as rich an agricultural region as is to be found anywhere. Large foreign interests have already entered this field. The sugar plantations and mills are for the most part owned and operated by foreigners—German, British, American, and Italian.

Between Salaverry and Callao there are a number of minor ports from which the chief exports are cotton, sugar, beans, and fruits and

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vegetables. Among these Chimbote is most worthy of mention. Situated at the mouth of the Santa River, the largest stream flowing into the Pacific on the Peruvian coast, Chimbote is the gateway to the fertile Department of Ancash, the most densely populated region of the Peruvian sierra. A hundred miles or more to the interior from Chimbote and on the brow of the Andes there are found extensive deposits of coal, which remain undeveloped because of the lack of transportation. There are also rich silver and copper and tungsten mines in this region, which will reach their full development only when better means are provided for the transportation of equipment and product. Farther on over the Western Cordillera is found the Callejon de Huailas, a fertile valley in the sierra situated at an altitude low enough to give an excellent climate and make possible a great variety of crops. The Lima banks have branch offices in this district, and several of the sierra towns are important trade centers, being located at the head of important trails leading into the montaña or in the midst of important mining and agricultural districts. The importance of these regions from the point of view of an American manufacturer who is seeking a market for his manufactures is difficult to estimate at present; they will reach their full development only with the introduction of modern means of transportation.

Callao is by far the most important port of Peru. Probably not less than three-fourths of all of the foreign trade of Peru passes through this port, and the back country, which is reached by a modern standard-gauge railway, consumes considerable quantities of all kinds of manufactured goods. Along this railway are located the chief mining centers and modern smelters. Coal has been discovered and steps are being taken to exploit this new source of wealth. The development of coal in the sierra of central Peru will undoubtedly stimulate manufacturing, especially in the mining and metal industries, and thus increase the wealth and purchasing power of the people of that region.

For a great distance south from Callao, the Cordillera rises rather abruptly from the coast and there are not found in this section those canyons which, piercing the first Cordillera, open up a passage for the waters from the melting snow on the mountains. This water, for the most part, flows eastward into the headwaters of the rivers that make up the Amazon system or collects in deep mountain lakes with no outlet other than seepage and evaporation. Several minor valleys, however, are to be found in which olives, dates, and grapes are the main crops. In the larger of these cotton and sugar are produced for export, but not in quantities comparable with those of the larger valleys of the northern part of the country.

Pisco is the most important port between Callao and Mollendo. Back of this port there is an important cotton-growing district, where a superior grade of long-staple cotton is produced, giving to Pisco considerable importance as a trade center. This region is well worth the attention of a traveler who desires to cover the country thoroughly but it may be reached satisfactorily through an agency established in Lima, where most of the important cotton producers and dealers maintain offices.

Mollendo has a twofold importance. It is the port of a vast region extending from the seacoast to the sierra of southern Peru, in

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which the city of Arequipa is the most important commercial center. It is also the port most used by American exporters in shipping their goods to Bolivia. This region is traversed by the Southern Railways of Peru, a system operated by the Peruvian Corporation. This British company operates, under the terms of a lease that has many years yet to run, most of the State railways of Peru. The highlands in Arequipa Department offer excellent pasture for sheep and alpaca, and Arequipa is the center of the world's trade in alpaca hair, a wool much prized by manufacturers of certain kinds of blankets and textiles. Arequipa is an important trading center. The populations of the sierra cities of Cuzco, Juliaca, Puno, etc., draw from Arequipa their supplies of imported manufactures. This region in southern Peru is not usually covered effectively by importers making Lima their headquarters and it is always advisable for the American commercial traveler visiting this region to plan to remain a week at Arequipa. This will not only give the traveler an opportunity to become adjusted to the atmospheric conditions of the highlands but will make it possible for him to visit the trading houses there and do some good business. During two years of service as commercial attaché in Peru I have not met a commercial traveler who regretted having remained over at least one week at Arequipa.

FOREIGN TRADE.

During the normal years that preceded the war, the foreign trade of Peru reached a total of approximately $75,000,000. During 1913, this amount was composed of imports to the value of $29,631,000 and exports to the value of $44,469,000. During 1914 and 1915 there was a marked falling off in the value of the merchandise imported by Peru. The outbreak of the war resulted in a general dislocation of trade. It became necessary to effect new trade connections in markets hitherto little known to Peruvian importers. Although the value of the total exports rose in 1915, the value of the imports was scarcely more than half of what it had been during normal years.

During the latter part of 1915 and the first months of 1916 a reaction set in, and the imports of Peru during 1916 reached the remarkable total of $42,257,000. During this same period the total foreign trade of Peru reached the record figure of $122,754,000. The increase was partly due to an increase in the production of raw materials required in war industries, especially cotton, sugar, and minerals. Since this date there has been no abatement in the development of the foreign trade of Peru, and probably when the statistics for 1917 and 1918 become available, they will show that even the record of 1916 has been passed.

The following is a statement of the foreign trade of Peru for the four-year period 1913 to 1916:

Items.	1913	1914	1915	1916
Imports	$29,631,033	$23,495,122	$15,064,468	$42,256,551
Exports	44,469,009	42,668,450	68,729,928	80,497,083
Total	74,100,042	66,163,572	83,794,396	122,753,634

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Statistics for 1917 are not yet available, but they will probably show an increase in Peruvian foreign trade. This growth in the volume of the trade of Peru met with a serious setback during the last months of 1917 and the first months of 1918, due to the adverse movement of exchange, which has been the logical result of the prohibition of gold exports from the United States coupled with the increasing difficulties attending all exports. During the last few months exchange in Peru has fallen until on January 31, 1918, the holders of sight drafts on New York were finding it difficult to dispose of them at all in the local banks, and an exchange rate of $5.60 to the Peruvian pound was current on that day.

In the normal years preceding the war the United Kingdom, the United States, and Germany were close competitors for the trade of Peru. The United Kingdom purchased more of Peruvian exports than did any other country, and the United States sold more goods in the Peruvian market than did either the United Kingdom or Germany. The following table is a statement of the foreign trade of Peru, with the principal countries of origin and destination, during the normal year 1913 and during 1916:

Countries.	1913		1916	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
United Kingdom	$7,779,614	$16,561,234	$7,281,768	$14,413,803
United States	8,541,932	14,761,356	24,899,849	50,632,694
Germany	5,138,901	2,970,856	60,614	.....
Chile	1,036,939	5,854,958	1,453,955	8,608,259
Belgium	1,869,411	1,214,178	59,475	.....
France	1,365,016	1,568,589	955,123	481,044
Italy	1,238,394	7,568	1,154,565	50,363
Japan	62,964	6,689	416,085	64,405
All other	2,597,862	1,523,581	5,975,117	6,246,515
Total	29,631,033	44,469,009	42,256,551	80,497,083

In the foregoing table the countries are arranged in the order of their importance in the total trade in 1913. Japan was included because of the remarkable increase in its trade with Peru, which has been still greater since 1916.

The following table gives the value and the percentage of imports and exports through the various ports of Peru in 1916:

Ports.	Imports.		Exports.		Total.	
	Value.	*Per cent.*	*Value.*	*Per cent.*	*Value.*	*Per cent.*
Callao	$29,276,641	69	$32,304,571	40	$61,581,212	50
Paita	3,540,809	8	3,798,655	5	7,339,464	6
Mollendo	3,059,768	7	5,397,443	7	8,457,211	7
Salaverry	2,263,990	5	9,819,508	12	12,083,498	10
Iquitos	1,574,152	4	2,179,622	3	3,753,774	3
Eten	1,444,952	3	3,043,630	4	4,488,582	4
Pisco	576,054	1	1,298,447	2	1,874,501	1.5
Pacasmayo	432,375	1	426,001	.5	858,376	1
All other	87,810	2	22,229,206	26.5	22,317,016	17.5
Total	42,256,551	100	80,497,083	100	122,753,634	100

Among the exports credited to Paita are not only the cotton from the Piura district but also the petroleum and petroleum prod-

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ucts from the oil fields of northern Peru. Pisco is similarly credited with sugar exported from several large plantations located at Tambo de Mora and Cerro Azul. Iquitos is a port on the upper Amazon from which Peruvian rubber chiefly is exported.

The foregoing table shows the lack of relation between the volume of exports and that of imports in the Peruvian ports. This is especially noticeable in the sugar districts. The owners of the large sugar and cotton plantations frequently live in Lima or abroad and the earnings of their investments do not always go to increase the local import trade.

IMPORT TRADE IN WEARING APPAREL.

The following pages contain a detailed statement of the wearing apparel of every kind that was imported into Peru during the normal year 1913 and during 1916, the latest year for which statistics are available. The official valuations have remained unchanged since before the war and in all statistics for 1916, therefore, the value is understated, as prices have risen considerably during the last few years.

The following table shows the quantity and value of the wearing apparel of different materials imported into Peru in 1913 and 1916, together with the amounts received through the principal ports of entry and from the principal countries of destination:

Articles, ports of entry, and countries of origin.	1913		1916	
COTTON GOODS.	*Quantity.*	*Value.*	*Quantity.*	*Value.*
Aprons....kilos..	1,050	$1,708	396	$1,477
Blouses and jackets....dozens..	830	5,161	798	9,434
Entered at Callao....do....	701	4,356	741	8,460
Imported from United States....do....	650	3,600	729	7,825
Caps....do....	1,032	4,422	394	2,629
Entered at Iquitos....do....	872	3,844	220	1,498
Imported from Spain....do....	416	1,822	45	188
Chemises....kilos..	1,166	5,589	168	1,266
Entered at Callao....do....	671	3,253	130	979
Imported from Germany....do....	764	3,605		
Collars for men and boys and plain collars for women....do....	19,935	32,742	15,247	51,941
Entered at—				
Callao....do....	13,598	22,334	9,648	32,865
Mollendo....do....	3,999	6,569	3,378	11,508
Pisco....do....	726	1,192	594	2,022
Imported from—				
Germany....do....	11,987	19,687	233	795
Italy....do....	1,872	3,074	4,756	16,202
Spain....do....	51	84	1,414	4,815
United Kingdom....do....	4,313	7,084	5,121	17,442
United States....do....	1,157	1,901	2,769	9,434
Corsets:				
Cotton....do....	2,261	19,256	1,447	44,343
Entered at—				
Callao....do....	1,833	15,611	1,216	37,280
Mollendo....do....	236	2,010	87	2,678
Imported from—				
Germany....do....	757	6,447	2	64
United States....do....	1,066	9,054	1,376	42,189
Cotton with silk trimmings....do....	145	1,533	298	11,427
Entered at—				
Callao....do....	139	1,472	183	7,029
Mollendo....do....	4	46	106	4,053
Imported from—				
Germany....do....	51	539		
United States....do....	33	353	266	10,204
All other (including corset waists)....do....	28	183	39	632
Cuffs for men and boys and plain cuffs for women..dozen pairs..	1,762	4,824	993	3,256
Entered at Callao....do....	1,017	2,784	728	2,388
Imported from—				
Germany....do....	1,302	3,564	24	79
Italy....do....	191	521	361	1,184

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Articles, ports of entry, and countries of origin.	1913		1916	
COTTON GOODS—continued.				
Drawers:				
Fabric and knitted drawers, shirts, chemises, and corset covers...kilos..	*Quantity.* 116,083	*Value.* $158,167	*Quantity.* 91,467	*Value.* $213,660
Entered at—				
Callao...do....	64,111	87,359	54,214	126,640
Eten...do....	8,027	10,938	4,513	10,542
Iquitos...do....	5,494	7,486	2,482	5,798
Mollendo...do....	13,362	18,207	13,641	31,864
Paita...do....	8,423	11,477	8,196	19,145
Salaverry...do....	10,422	14,201	6,961	16,260
Imported from—				
Belgium...do....	4,580	6,241	.....	.....
France...do....	6,596	8,988	2,197	5,132
Germany...do....	33,587	45,766	8	19
Italy...do....	22,880	31,177	6,023	14,069
Japan...do....	3,256	4,437	20,269	47,347
Spain...do....	37,234	50,736	33,456	78,151
United Kingdom...do....	3,371	4,593	1,948	4,550
United States...do....	3,637	4,956	25,955	60,629
All other...do....	1,180	3,597	365	1,266
Dressing gowns.....	.....	1,060	.....	1,747
Garments, n. e. s., with or without trimmings or embroideries other than silk...kilos..	4,521	21,707	2,078	15,202
Entered at Callao...do....	2,893	14,110	1,584	11,671
Imported from—				
France...do....	613	3,030	133	955
Germany...do....	2,664	12,922	10	84
United Kingdom...do....	1,099	5,038	48	363
United States...do....	38	172	1,445	12,819
Garments, n. e. s., with silk trimmings, silk admixture, or underskirt or lining of silk...kilos..	1,700	29,838	254	3,389
Entered at—				
Callao...do....	593	6,266	218	2,807
Iquitos...do....	1,055	23,035	10	148
Imported from—				
France...do....	1,021	20,279	13	186
Germany...do....	189	3,236	.....	.....
United Kingdom...do....	228	4,144	26	344
United States...do....	157	1,303	202	2,667
Garters...do....	462	1,124	523	2,674
Entered at Callao...do....	314	764	251	1,283
Imported from United States...do....	145	353	427	2,184
Gloves and mitts...do....	1,164	5,868	104	940
Entered at Callao...do....	819	4,113	84	763
Imported from Germany...do....	1,009	5,072	7	72
Handkerchiefs:				
Without embroideries or trimmings...do....	103,068	94,046	47,574	94,920
Entered at—				
Callao...do....	53,756	49,051	22,909	45,707
Eten...do....	7,680	7,008	1,992	3,975
Iquitos...do....	2,601	2,373	2,811	5,609
Mollendo...do....	16,966	15,481	9,779	19,512
Pacasmayo...do....	5,452	4,975	2,081	4,152
Paita...do....	8,507	7,762	5,843	11,658
Salaverry...do....	4,564	4,165	1,244	2,482
Imported from—				
United Kingdom...do....	100,221	91,449	44,298	88,386
United States...do....	544	496	2,694	5,375
With trimmings or embroideries, other than silk...do....	.....	1,414	.....	[a] 2,908
Imitation-silk or mercerized...do....	4,136	8,032	2,022	6,691
Entered at—				
Callao...do....	2,151	4,187	608	2,012
Mollendo...do....	537	1,045	942	3,117
Imported from United Kingdom...do....	3,831	7,457	1,875	6,205
Hose and half hose:				
Cotton...do....	121,608	133,156	263,071	[b] 544,173
Entered at—				
Callao...do....	70,620	77,326	178,328	368,829
Eten...do....	5,634	6,169	11,731	24,284
Iquitos...do....	2,489	2,725	2,049	4,238
Mollendo...do....	22,082	24,179	38,709	80,108
Pacasmayo...do....	2,736	2,996	5,877	12,155
Paita...do....	8,221	9,002	12,649	26,161
Pisco...do....	3,306	3,620	3,280	6,784
Salaverry...do....	6,419	7,029	10,258	21,216
Imported from—				
Germany...do....	107,313	117,504	1	2
Hongkong...do....	411	450	33,977	70,273
Japan...do....	1,901	2,082	26,593	55,001
Spain...do....	3,070	3,362	40,595	84,050
United Kingdom...do....	5,236	5,733	5,931	12,314
United States...do....	1,406	1,540	150,499	311,268

[a] Including $17 worth of handkerchiefs with silk embroideries, all from the United States.
[b] Including hose with foot of wool or wool admixture, valued at $145.

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Articles, ports of entry, and countries of origin.	1913		1916	
COTTON GOODS—continued.				
Hose and half hose—Continued.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Imitation-silk ..... kilos..	1,921	$6,544	1,200	$7,008
Entered at Callao ..... do....	1,302	4,435	571	3,335
Imported from—				
Germany ..... do....	1,655	5,638		
United States ..... do....	87	296	871	5,086
Knit goods, sewed, n. e. s. ..... do....	847	2,319	912	4,660
Entered at Callao ..... do....	804	2,201	400	2,044
Imported from—				
Germany ..... do....	383	1,048		
Spain ..... do....	26	71	413	2,110
United States ..... do....	41	112	364	1,860
Laces, shoe and corset, with or without tips ..... do....	9,880	12,020	16,024	33,142
Entered at—				
Callao ..... do....	7,023	8,544	10,588	21,899
Mollendo ..... do....	1,117	1,359	2,137	4,420
Pisco ..... do....	753	916	269	556
Salaverry ..... do....	206	251	1,384	2,862
Imported from—				
Belgium ..... do....	1,772	2,156		
France ..... do....	409	498	926	1,915
Germany ..... do....	3,353	4,079	2	4
Italy ..... do....	2,981	3,627	5,553	11,485
Spain ..... do....			888	1,837
United Kingdom ..... do....	867	1,055	60	124
United States ..... do....	496	603	8,356	17,282
Neckties, for men or boys ..... dozens..	485	797	718	2,448
Entered at Callao ..... do....	385	633	359	1,224
Imported from Italy ..... do....	71	117	359	1,224
Pajamas for men ..... kilos..	1,534	2,799	1,236	[a] 3,603
Entered at—				
Callao ..... do....	1,367	2,495	660	1,921
Iquitos ..... do....			370	1,073
Imported from—				
France ..... do....	9	16	385	1,117
United States ..... do....	1,011	1,845	228	661
Shawls ..... kilos..	15,799	12,395	537	980
Entered at—				
Callao ..... do....	7,221	5,713	522	953
Mollendo ..... do....	4,894	3,811	15	27
Imported from Germany ..... do....	13,049	10,253		
Shirts:				
Of common prints, flannel, "amotope," striped stuffs, unbleached drills, and similar materials, for workmen. kilos..	9,174	7,590	11,617	24,875
Entered at—				
Callao ..... do....	6,366	5,267	8,961	19,188
Iquitos ..... do....	2,235	1,849	1,243	2,662
Imported from—				
France ..... do....	91	75	1,122	2,402
Germany ..... do....	1,527	1,263		
United States ..... do....	5,597	4,630	8,268	17,704
Of other kinds, white or colored, with plain or embroidered fronts, with or without collars and cuffs attached, for men ..... dozens..	7,568	49,719	4,092	67,899
Entered at—				
Callao ..... do....	4,561	29,962	2,470	40,995
Eten ..... do....	189	1,241	330	5,474
Mollendo ..... do....	988	6,492	752	12,477
Paita ..... do....	407	2,674	242	4,008
Salaverry ..... do....	452	2,970	123	2,044
Imported from—				
Germany ..... do....	3,607	23,698	2	40
Italy ..... do....	314	2,065	212	3,514
Spain ..... do....	527	3,462	693	11,507
United Kingdom ..... do....	1,347	8,847	1,461	24,241
United States ..... do....	1,021	6,707	1,553	25,772
Other ..... do....	295	3,879	32	771
Suspenders ..... kilos..	5,484	12,010	2,352	12,018
Entered at—				
Callao ..... do....	3,373	7,387	1,253	6,403
Mollendo ..... do....	1,390	3,044	806	4,120
Imported from—				
Germany ..... do....	1,451	3,178		
United States ..... do....	2,586	5,663	2,059	10,519
Trousers ..... dozens..	2,865	18,821	2,647	40,573
Entered at Callao ..... do....	2,235	14,680	2,326	35,661
Imported from United States ..... do....	1,883	12,371	2,351	36,041
Waterproof garments:				
Common, for sailors ..... kilos..	1,534	2,520	3,240	8,262
Entered at Callao ..... do....	1,458	2,395	3,240	8,262
Imported from United States ..... do....	1,520	2,497	3,240	8,262

[a] Including pajamas with silk trimmings, valued at $94.

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Articles, ports of entry, and countries of origin.	1913		1916	
COTTON GOODS—continued.				
Waterproof garments—Continued.	*Quantity.*	*Value.*	*Quantity.*	*Value.*
Other.....kilos..	1,507	$4,125	1,901	$6,482
Entered at Callao.....do....	1,123	3,074	1,762	6,008
Imported from United States.....do....	414	1,133	1,378	4,699
All other.....	.....	17,037	.....	6,673
Total.....	.....	686,002	.....	1,232,469
WOOLEN GOODS				
Bathing suits, with or without silk trimmings.....kilos..	460	$1,009	231	$1,407
Blouses, sack coats, jackets, etc., with or without cotton admixture, and coarse garments for soldiers.....number..	642	3,492	438	4,209
Entered at Callao.....do....	344	1,750	332	3,097
Imported from United States.....do....	116	550	247	2,231
Caps.....dozens..	2,121	10,580	1,062	8,104
Entered at—				
Callao.....do....	1,051	5,546	337	2,454
Iquitos.....do....	753	3,413	472	3,223
Mollendo.....do....	221	1,127	128	1,245
Imported from United Kingdom.....do....	731	3,767	594	4,356
Drawers and undershirts, knit or of flannel, with or without admixture of inferior materials, and those of flannel with weft or warp of inferior material.....kilos..	16,329	44,388	1,805	8,787
Entered at—				
Callao.....do....	12,181	33,034	1,422	6,926
Mollendo.....do....	2,277	6,233	277	1,348
Imported from—				
France.....do....	1,254	3,433	42	204
Germany.....do....	10,420	28,214	54	263
Italy.....do....	937	2,565	57	277
United Kingdom.....do....	2,901	7,940	777	3,784
United States.....do....	44	120	678	3,308
Garments, n. e. s., with or without silk trimmings, or with petticoat or lining of silk.....kilos..	1,898	20,659	242	4,835
Entered at Callao.....do....	1,480	16,392	206	4,151
Imported from—				
France.....do....	409	5,398	40	878
Germany.....do....	735	7,005	6	88
United Kingdom.....do....	516	6,124	15	397
United States.....do....	15	145	128	2,219
Hose and half hose, with or without admixture of inferior material.....kilos..	2,060	7,520	646	4,716
Entered at—				
Callao.....do....	1,488	5,431	297	2,168
Mollendo.....do....	8	26	244	1,781
Imported from—				
France.....do....	308	1,124	36	263
Germany.....do....	783	2,858	.....	.....
United Kingdom.....do....	931	3,403	348	2,540
United States.....do....	5	18	212	1,548
Knit goods, n. e. s., sewed, including those trimmed with silk [a].....kilos..	4,960	16,647	1,148	7,832
Entered at Callao.....do....	4,334	14,572	940	6,415
Imported from—				
Germany.....do....	3,567	11,998	.....	.....
United States.....do....	96	315	730	4,978
Shawls, all kinds, except net, with or without admixture of inferior materials.....kilos..	49,360	96,520	10,136	39,530
Entered at—				
Callao.....do....	27,489	53,766	3,548	13,837
Mollendo.....do....	9,963	19,394	3,715	14,489
Salaverry.....do....	3,792	7,434	1,781	6,946
Imported from—				
Germany.....do....	40,319	78,915	.....	.....
Spain.....do....	6,301	12,266	9,758	38,056
Shirts, flannel, knit or not, with or without admixture or part of other materials.....	.....	1,410	.....	13,572
Entered at Callao.....	.....	410	.....	12,089
Imported from United States.....	.....	2	.....	11,458
Trousers:				
Cassimere and other finer stuffs.....number..	265	1,051	256	2,491
Entered at Callao.....do....	115	458	190	1,849
Imported from United Kingdom.....do....	203	803	185	1,800
Coarser stuffs.....do....	338	452	790	2,307
Entered at Callao.....do....	218	292	688	2,009
Imported from—				
United Kingdom.....do....	219	293	526	1,536
United States.....do....	33	44	219	639
All other.....	.....	4,763	.....	3,740
Total.....	.....	208,491	.....	101,530

[a] Knit goods trimmed with silk were valued at only $68 in 1916.

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Articles, ports of entry, and countries of origin.		1913		1916	
		Quantity.	*Value.*	*Quantity.*	*Value.*
SILK GOODS.					
Caps	dozens	347	$2,430	105	$1,374
Garments, n. e. s., for women	kilos	298	11,090	98	5,139
Entered at Callao	do	275	10,244	71	3,716
Imported from—					
France	do	123	4,587	25	1,336
United States	do	28	1,022	23	1,219
Handkerchiefs, with or without admixture of inferior materials, embroidered or not	kilos	695	8,864	304	6,976
Entered at Callao	do	328	5,228	266	6,144
Imported from Japan	do	135	2,121	155	3,606
Hose and half hose	do	105	2,555	280	10,229
Entered at—					
Callao	do	89	2,166	146	5,329
Eten	do	2	49	39	1,424
Mollendo	do	9	219	42	1,533
Imported from United States	do	15	365	185	6,753
Neckties:					
Bow, to fasten to collar	dozens	922	1,795	930	2,716
Entered at Callao	do	701	1,365	737	2,152
Imported from Italy	do	503	979	516	1,507
Other, with or without admixture of inferior materials	dozens	6,155	20,218	2,908	12,737
Entered at—					
Callao	do	4,757	15,626	1,247	5,462
Mollendo	do	634	2,083	1,346	5,895
Imported from—					
France	do	1,528	5,019	600	2,628
Germany	do	1,456	4,783	.....	.....
Italy	do	1,975	6,488	635	2,781
United Kingdom	do	930	3,055	772	3,381
United States	do	129	424	360	1,577
Shawls and similar garments, embroidered or plain, for women	kilos	671	14,234	133	6,059
Entered at—					
Callao	do	454	9,338	99	4,292
Mollendo	do	126	2,798	29	1,540
Imported from—					
France	do	156	3,644	34	1,920
Hongkong	do	261	4,763	34	1,241
All other		.....	15,844	.....	7,295
Total		.....	77,030	.....	52,516
FUR AND LEATHER GOODS.					
Belts	kilos	2,273	3,412	619	1,972
Entered at Iquitos	do	1,609	2,156	335	1,042
Imported from United Kingdom	do	1,583	2,052	351	1,104
Gloves:					
Fencing and boxing	do	273	1,495	272	2,119
Entered at Callao	do	268	1,464	266	2,072
Imported from United States	do	181	991	250	1,948
Other	do	317	5,140	92	2,995
Entered at Callao	do	283	4,588	85	2,780
Imported from—					
France	do	176	2,874	26	863
United Kingdom	do	113	1,812	54	1,766
Leggings and gaiters	do	3,220	7,835	1,290	6,024
Entered at Callao	do	2,024	4,925	1,041	4,861
Imported from United Kingdom	do	2,552	6,210	1,089	5,086
Neck pieces, boas, stoles, etc	do	1,425	20,804	277	7,548
Entered at—					
Callao	do	1,342	19,593	124	3,379
Mollendo	do	55	803	93	2,534
Imported from—					
France	do	187	2,730	43	1,172
Germany	do	282	4,117	.....	.....
Italy	do	758	11,066	6	166
Spain	do	.....	.....	113	3,079
United Kingdom	do	167	2,438	4	102
United States	do	1	15	110	2,998
All other	do	.....	2,341	.....	743
Total		.....	41,027	.....	21,401
ARTICLES OF OTHER MATERIALS.					
Collars, linen, for men, and plain collars for women	dozen	3,570	5,212	1,112	3,792
Entered at Callao	do	2,735	3,993	841	2,868
Imported from—					
France	do	1,129	1,648	589	2,008
United Kingdom	do	1,159	1,692	185	631

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Articles, ports of entry, and countries of origin.		1913		1916	
ARTICLES OF OTHER MATERIALS—continued.					
Drawers, shirts, chemises, corset covers, knit, including those of lisle thread	kilos	*Quantity.* 312	*Value.* $2,053	*Quantity.* 314	*Value.* $3,209
Entered at Iquitos	do	153	1,008	266	2,719
Imported from France	do	220	1,445	264	2,698
Handkerchiefs, plain or embroidered			3,370		3,647
Entered at Callao			2,177		2,455
Imported from United Kingdom			2,160		3,192
Hose and half hose, including those of lisle thread	kilos	943	5,738	1,158	11,513
Entered at—					
Callao	do	519	3,155	598	5,938
Eten	do	15	91	202	2,006
Imported from—					
France	do	370	2,253	408	4,051
Germany	do	262	1,592		
Spain	do	54	328	492	4,900
United Kingdom	do	222	1,351	12	119
United States	do	10	61	202	2,006
All other			9,829		3,078
Total			26,202		25,239
Grand total, wearing apparel			1,038,752		1,433,155

Of the total imports of wearing apparel into Peru in 1913 ($1,038,752), Germany supplied 46 per cent, the United Kingdom 21 per cent, and France 10 per cent. Italy, Spain, and the United States were in close competition, their sales to Peru constituting 7.3, 7.2, and 6.5 per cent, respectively, of the total trade in wearing apparel. In 1916 the former trade of Germany had been lost to the United States, Spain, and Japan, so that while the German share was only one-fifth of 1 per cent of the total, the American share was 45 per cent; that of Spain 17 per cent; and that of Japan 8 per cent, as against 1 per cent in 1913. Imports from the United Kingdom, Italy, and France declined, being 14, 5, and 3.5 per cent, respectively.

The following table shows the value of the imports of wearing apparel into Peru in 1913 and 1916 from the most important countries of origin:

Years.	France.	Germany.	Hongkong.	Italy.	Japan.	Spain.	United Kingdom.	United States.
1913	$103,119	$475,828	$9,842	$76,544	$11,314	$74,400	$223,021	$67,627
1916	50,785	2,542	74,221	67,778	115,663	246,406	205,924	650,406

DOMESTIC MANUFACTURE OF WEARING APPAREL.

There are in Peru no factories, properly so called, engaged in the production of wearing apparel of any kind. The large cotton mills established in Lima and other cities turn out only rough sheetings and ginghams and the coarsest grades of knit goods. Similarly the woolen mills devote themselves almost exclusively to the production of coarse woolen suitings and blankets.

The demand for cheap clothing both in the coast cities and in the sierra has occasioned the establishment in Lima of shops employing 50 to 100 seamstresses, or even more, in the manufacture of inexpensive suits for men. These are generally of jeans and coarse cotton materials and are made to retail at $2 to $5 or $6 per suit.

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The output of these shops is sold in the market places of the provincial centers by peddlers. The volume of this business is considerable. The difficulty of controlling details at a distance in a business made up of an infinity of small transactions gives the local producer an advantage over his foreign competitor. There is, in addition, a marked tendency in Peru to protect every enterprise that can be called a "national industry"; and an attempt to wrest any part of this trade from those at present engaged in it would probably be resented and might occasion an increase of the import duties, which are already high.

Until a few years ago several of the larger manufacturers of France maintained in Lima sample rooms displaying a full line of women's dresses, suits, and cloaks, lingerie, knit articles, etc. Among the firms doing this were the Printemps de Paris, Les Grands Magasins du Louvre, Les Galeries de Lafayette, etc. The agents in charge of these samples took orders, which were forwarded to Paris and filled by parcel post. The vexatious delays involved in this method of purchasing made it possible for the local modiste to compete successfully with the Parisian factory, and an important proportion of all women's clothing, especially of the less expensive kinds, was made locally. At regular intervals the sample rooms were visited by a traveling tailor for women, who gave advice as to styles, made designs suitable to the local requirements, and took orders for costumes and suits to be made in Paris. This system of supplying the needs of a growing market such as Lima was cumbersome and unsatisfactory, but it was not abandoned until the war interfered with the regularity of postal shipments from Europe.

At present a considerable volume of trade in women's wearing apparel is being carried on with the United States and several of the dealers are carrying stocks of dresses and suits, as well as of lingerie and knit goods.

The cutting off of the supply of ready-made and to-order suits from Europe has stimulated the local dressmaking establishments into increased activity, and several shops have sprung up in which 50 to 100 seamstresses are employed regularly. The designers in these establishments are not of the best, however, and their best results are obtained by making clumsy copies of imported samples. The American manufacturer of wearing apparel need not fear any serious competition from this source.

The most effective defensive weapon with which to combat this competition will be giving proper publicity to the excellence of American styles and workmanship, coupled with showing up local dealers who are palming off on the Peruvian public goods of home manufacture as the product of the best American factories. It would be well if American exporters could protect themselves by preventing their Peruvian representatives from engaging in manufacture.

In brief, it may be said that the manufacture of wearing apparel in Peru has not passed out of the stage of a household industry, and it is not probable that the manufacture of women's suits, cloaks, etc., or of men's suits will ever be undertaken there on a large scale. The workmanship of the Peruvian tailor is poor, and imported ready-to-wear garments for both men and women will have no difficulty in demonstrating their superiority in workmanship and quality, fit and design.

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Several local shirt factories are doing a good business. These shirt factories conduct their own retail establishments in Lima and send their goods into the Provinces. They manufacture shirts, collars, and cuffs, and their work is of fair quality. The cost of production in such establishments is relatively low, especially the labor cost.

Since Lima is devoted to the activities common to a large agricultural community, combined with the port activities, and has a surprisingly small number of industrial enterprises, there is little or no employment for women. The women of Peru have a prejudice against factory employment, and probably no industry employing large numbers of women under ordinary factory conditions will easily succeed there. The women are not, however, averse to piece work that can be done at home. Most of the milliners, dressmakers, and shirt makers are women thus working at home on materials supplied by the manufacturers. These women work for very low wages, and their work is of a good standard of excellence. Much of the clothing for boys and children and practically all of that for women is made under these conditions.

Anyone who has visited a Peruvian city is surprised at the large number of tailor shops. These shops are to be found in every street of Lima and even the smallest provincial village is not without one or more tailors. The Peruvian woman of the lower classes has from time immemorial made her own dresses and underwear; the women of the better classes import their finer gowns and lingerie from Paris, Switzerland, etc.; but the Peruvian man has never grown accustomed to ready-to-wear and factory-made clothing. Those Peruvians who have gone abroad have gone mostly to Europe, where they have seen the poorly designed and ill-executed ready-made suits of England and the Continent, and have returned with the conviction that factory-made clothing is an abomination, except in novelty summer or sport goods. The tailored suit is still supreme in Peru.

The fact that the tailors are both numerous and intelligent has given them an influence in shaping the tariff laws of Peru. In this they have had the support of the drapers and importers of tailors' materials and supplies and the indifference of the average man, who never thinks of ready-made clothing as a thing in which he might be interested.

While a large number of the tailors who cater to the clients that pay least for their suits are willing to produce a suit for $20 upwards, their product is not such as to compete successfully with the ready-made clothing of a similar grade from the United States. In the best tailor shops, it is customary to charge not less than $35 for an ordinary three-piece sack suit of serge or similar material. Such a suit is inferior in finish, design, and material to the ready-made suits that sell at this price or less in the United States.

MARKET FOR PARTICULAR CLASSES OF APPAREL.

MEN'S AND YOUTHS' CLOTHING.

OUTER GARMENTS.

It is said that about 15 years ago there was in Peru a considerable trade in ready-made clothing and that on the principal street of Lima five or six important establishments were devoted to this trade.

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Those have disappeared and to-day there is no store in Lima that devotes its energies exclusively or even in a large measure to the sale of ready-made clothing. The only retail establishments handling ready-made clothing for men exclusively are certain stores in the vicinity of the public markets of Lima, where suits of the cheapest cotton drill and diablo fuerte trousers are sold to the Indian farm laborers who bring produce into the market.

The market for ready-made clothing for men and youths is very little developed in Peru. The product of the local tailoring establishments is, however, of such inferior workmanship and design that the articles of this character manufactured in the United States would probably find no great difficulty in entering this market if they were properly presented. The American manufacturer must not conclude from this, however, that the market for ready-made clothing in Peru is a virgin field in which his goods will be received at first with open arms.

A considerable quantity of creditable woolen suitings is woven in the mills of Peru, especially in the Santa Catalina mills in Lima. The Government of Peru has made efforts to protect its textile industries as of national importance and has protected them by placing a relatively high import duty on both woolen piece goods and ready-made clothing.

Labor in Peru is comparatively cheap, and factory-made clothing imported could not depend on price alone in this market, but would have to possess a fully demonstrated superiority of design, workmanship, and material. In spite of efforts that have been made, the only imported ready-made suits for men that have been at all successful in Peru are novelty suits, such as palm beach and other fancy summer weaves; riding breeches; athletic suits, especially for golf and tennis; and to a less extent, overalls and blouses for sale to miners. It is not improbable, however, that the output of the American clothing factories could be successfully introduced into Peru through a carefully conducted campaign that would have for its purpose the demonstration of the superiority of the imported goods, as well as the breaking down of the prejudice that exists against them in this market.

Assuming that such a market might be created, the demand at first would be for the three-piece suit exclusively. All weights from the very lightest to the heaviest are in use. In the summer in the coastal regions, the heat is intense and the demand is for the lighter summer weights. The cost of laundering, coupled with the danger of fading, which is due both to the intense light of the tropical sun and to the laundering process, makes it indispensable that summer suits intended for Peru should be of the fastest possible colors. One who has lived in Lima must have a distinct memory of the dust that prevails during the summer and will realize the undesirability of light-colored garments, even for summer use. The gray alpaca and dark cotton weaves are much preferred to such light-colored materials as palm-beach cloth.

Although in the winter the cold is never very great, it is penetrating, because of the prevailing mists and fogs, and suits of the heaviest materials are worn during this season, even at sea level in regions within the latitude of the Tropics. In clothing for winter wear,

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dark colors are the rule almost to the exclusion of light mixtures of every variety.

For both winter and summer wear the three-piece is always preferred to the two-piece suit, but there is some demand for two-piece suits with which fancy vests are worn. There is a demand for light overcoats for winter wear, both of the better grades of cloth and of waterproof materials. These are invariably black or dark in color. It practically never rains in the coast regions of Peru, and the demand for raincoats is limited to the sierra, where the poncho is much more generally worn than any form of raincoat. There is a limited demand for rubber ponchos, which it would probably be possible to increase. Rubber coats and ponchos usually are imported from the United States; cravenette coats come from England. There is no demand for ready-made dress suits or frock coats. These are invariably made to order and the unsalability of the ready-made article is evident from the fact that the pawnshops of Lima refuse to accept clothing of this sort as collateral for even the most insignificant loan. The materials most in demand are French combed and English carded woolens, materials with a long nap being preferred.

The local tailors, many of whom have learned their trade through correspondence schools in London or Paris, receive regularly fashion papers and plates and keep well up with the styles of Europe. So deep-rooted is the prejudice against ready-made suits and so thorough the conviction that the tailors of Lima are past masters in their art, that it is the ambition of even the humblest citizen to wear only clothing produced by one of the five or six most advertised French or English tailors of Lima. In discussing this matter with the heads of these establishments, I have been assured that even the humblest domestic servant will save his wages for months to invest in an expensive tailored suit. The manager of the best-known French tailor in Lima stated that his best clients were the majordomos from the homes of Lima's most wealthy class.

At present (1918) prices of woolen suitings have risen considerably and the cost of the average three-piece sack suit made to order in the local tailor shops, is $25 to $40, the difference in price depending more on the reputation of the tailor than on the character of the suit. The American athletic type of suit, with broad shoulders, is not at all popular.

There is in Lima one tailor who has adopted the motto "Mas barato que yo, nadie" ("Cheaper than I, no one"). This tailor makes suits costing $16 to $25. The fact that he bases his plea for patronage on the cheapness of his product seems to have discredited him and his clothing is said to be little worn in Lima. He does, however, find a market for his output at the weekly fairs held in the provincial towns. The name of this manufacturer is Valles e Hijo, Calle Mantas, Lima.

There are, in addition, several jobbers in cottons and woolens who manufacture men's wearing apparel on a small scale. Their methods are not unlike those described under the heading of shirts. The product is of the cheapest kind and is sold to the Indian population both in the coastal region and in the sierra.

At one of these factories the following prices were charged per dozen suits of different materials: Cotton drill, 78 to 84 soles

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(1 sol=$0.487, or one-tenth of the Peruvian pound); cottonade, lined with sheeting, 84 to 100 soles; cotton cassimere, 200 soles; woolen cassimere with cotton mixture, 360 soles; diablo fuerte (corduroy), 205 soles. Cottonade trousers sell for 30 to 50 soles per dozen and diablo fuerte for 60 soles per dozen. The colors most in demand are coffee brown, tan, and navy blue.

There are in Peru what may be styled ambulant tailors, who adopt two distinct methods of procedure. The more common is to go into the Provinces with samples of suitings and solicit business to be executed at home, generally in Lima, the tailor himself returning with the suits when they are finished and using them in his campaign for additional new business. A tailor may also establish himself in a provincial market place, taking with him a fair assortment of suitings and a sewing machine, and turn out the suits for his clients on the spot and under their own inspection.

Overalls are worn only by the foreign mechanics employed at the mines and smelters or at the larger industrial plants. Native laborers, except the few who are well paid and like to imitate their foreign comrades, do not usually wear them. The demand for overalls, especially for trousers, is increasing, however, and there is a considerable importation of workmen's trousers of diablo fuerte (corduroy) and similar materials. Ordinarily the cotton trousers for workingmen are of blue drill. The Indians, however, wear striped drill known locally as casinete. This type of trousers is usually of local manufacture, and several of the dry-goods stores of Lima manufacture them for distribution throughout the interior by means of peddlers. To compete with these the imported article will have to be very durable and cheap. The American overall is well adapted to Peruvian conditions and satisfies admirably the limited demand that exists for this type of clothing.

Except for the military and police, there is no demand for imported uniforms. Chauffeurs do not require uniforms, and porters and servants usually wear custom-made costumes purchased from the local tailor. Military and police uniforms are manufactured by the Quartermaster Department of the Army. The materials of which these uniforms are made are usually imported, and it would probably be possible to obtain a contract for furnishing the uniforms ready-made if prices and workmanship could be made to suit the standards adopted, which are not high.

Peruvian youths devote themselves but little to athletic games. The young men of the foreign colonies take to polo, tennis, and golf, but their number is small and the costumes are usually imported direct or are made by the local tailors. Several retail stores in Lima carry small stocks of flannel trousers for sale to tennis players, but the trade is extremely slow and may not be expected to attain great volume.

It is evident from what has been said that there does not at present exist in Peru a market prepared to receive factory-made clothing from the United States. It is not improbable, however, that the product of American clothing factories might be introduced after a skillfully conducted campaign of education. Eventually American clothing will probably be well received in Peru, and it will satisfy in every manner the local requirements.

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SHIRTS.

As has already been noted, there are several shirt factories in Lima which are doing a thriving business and seem to be prosperous. One of these shirt factories conducts an important retail establishment in which novelties and men's wear in general, except factory-made suits, are sold. It has in stock a complete line of American goods, including underwear, neckwear, socks, and shirts.

There is, of course, a danger connected with the handling of imported goods by a retail establishment that engages at the same time in the manufacture of articles competing in kind and quality with those imported. It is thought that in at least one of the Lima shirt factories embroidered labels removed from imported shirts are attached to the shirts of local production, which are thus placed on sale adroitly disguised as imported articles.

There is one noticeable difference between the shirt commonly worn in Peru and that worn in the United States. The coat shirt has not yet become popular in Peru. No coat-cut shirts have been imported from Europe, and few from the United States. Inquiries in several of the more progressive stores lead to the belief that the Peruvian men who have tried the coat-cut shirt appreciate its superiority, but that the shirt has not been introduced on a sufficiently extensive scale to create any considerable demand. The shirt factories claim that they have never had any call from their clients for coat-cut shirts.

The spirit of conservation is decidedly strong in Peru among both the sellers and the wearers of shirts; and with none but the present retailers to depend upon for assistance, the American manufacturer will find it difficult to introduce ideas with which everybody is familiar in the United States. It is not advisable for the American manufacturer, however, to manufacture for this market shirts of special design. It would be more practical to imitate the example of the American corset manufacturer, and by means of a systematic and carefully conducted campaign place the coat-cut shirt on the market in Peru. This shirt will win in the end because of its superiority, and its introduction by the American manufacturer will give him the advantage of selling a new and superior article in competition with the low-grade shirts heretofore imported from England and other European countries.

In the matter of color designs, the American shirt can not be said to be well adapted to the Peruvian market. The taste of the Peruvian people for colors seems to be affected by the peculiar atmospheric condition prevailing throughout the arid plains of the Pacific coast of South America. Color designs must be quiet. The gaudy stripes in vogue in the United States, especially during recent years, are not at all acceptable. White or light-colored backgrounds with pin stripes arranged in groups are acceptable, and in these designs blues and reds are preferred. Stripe combinations that are sufficiently conservative find a limited demand, especially among the foreign colonies in Lima. Plain colors, chiefly tans, sell very well.

The use of chemicals in laundering shirts in Peru, as well as the sun drying to which the shirts are subjected in being laundered, tends to fade the best of colors. It is therefore important that only the best colors be sent to Peru.

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French zephyrs seem to be the materials most in demand. The American shirtings are criticized by the Peruvian public as being loosely wooven and therefore lacking the smooth finish of the French materials. In this connection it is well to note that shirts made of materials containing silk stripes, common in the United States, are subject to import taxes in Peru as silk shirts, no matter how insignificant the quantity of silk in the shirting may be. The duty on silk shirts is so high that it makes prices prohibitive for shirts made of cotton materials with silk-thread stripes. There might be some small sale for all-silk shirts, but, as a rule, a Peruvian who can afford to wear silk shirts prefers to have his shirts made to order. The prejudice against American shirting in general is due in large measure to the force of habit, as the Peruvian public has been heretofore accustomed only to the tight weaves imported from Europe. Most men while at work wear the negligee shirt. These are always sold with cuffs attached; the cuffs may be either stiff or soft, and the volume of sales in the two varieties is about equal. The soft cuff seems, however, to be acquiring greater popularity, and will probably be much more generally adopted than at present.

White dress shirts, with or without cuffs, are worn a great deal at social functions. Elderly gentlemen in Peru frequently wear stiff-bosomed white dress shirts exclusively and many of the more conservative are still partial to the detached cuffs. The regular American white shirt with bosom pleated to the waist line is popular and there exists at all times a considerable demand for this style of shirt. Dress shirts made in Peru or imported from Europe are usually supposed to be of linen or at least to have linen fronts and cuffs. Close examination of them, however, shows that linen-finished cotton shirtings are frequently substituted for linen, and one American salesman, who seems to be an expert in this subject, states that fully 75 per cent of the shirts offered as linen in Lima are the same linen-finished cotton used in the United States for the same purpose. According to this salesman, the merchants themselves seldom know whether the article offered for sale is really linen or not. Another traveling salesman representing one of the large American collar and shirt manufacturers had been trying for some time to get a dealer to handle his cotton collars, a well-known brand; but the dealer would have none of them, saying that his store was known as the most exclusive in town, and his reputation demanded that he handle nothing but pure linen. The salesman sent a couple of this dealer's "linen" collars to be analyzed, and found them to be just what he had expected—pure cotton. The merchant himself told me that he had been selling that brand of collars for 20 years and had honestly believed them to be linen.

Shirts with collars attached are little used and only for tennis and golf. The fancy negligee or pleated shirt with detachable collar of the same material as the shirt, either soft or stiff, is fairly popular with the young men. This may, however, be a passing fashion and is likely to have been forgotten before this report reaches the American manufacturer. Cotton shirts with silk bosoms and cuffs are not imported, for the reasons mentioned in discussing shirts containing silk-thread stripes; they pay the same import tax as all-silk shirts, which is prohibitive. The retail price of the shirt most commonly

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sold varies between 2.50 and 3.50 soles each. The demand for more expensive shirts reaching as high as 5 and 6 soles each is considerable, but much less than for the cheaper shirts.

There are three general methods employed in the laundering of shirts in Lima. The Chinese laundrymen employ chloride of lime and other chemicals in considerable quantities to remove stains and wash the shirt on a smooth table or rock with a stiff brush. It is evident that shirts made of finer materials, especially those that are not tightly woven or contain silk-thread stripes, will not last long if submitted to this treatment. The Chinese laundries, being the cheapest in Lima, are patronized by the poorer classes, and shirts intended for sale to these classes must be of a character to resist this kind of treatment.

There are several steam laundries in Lima which attract a great deal of work because of their quick deliveries. It is said, however, that the steam laundries use chemicals as a substitute for soap and that they therefore destroy the clothing very rapidly.

The finer shirts are laundered by women who devote themselves to this occupation and who, in Lima, constitute an important element of the laboring population. These laundresses are able, because of the excellence of their work as well as because of their careful treatment of finer shirts, to obtain a large proportion of the high-grade work.

The price of laundering can not be said to affect the demand for various types of shirts of the higher grades, except that the laundresses do not seem to be able to finish fronts and collars and cuffs as well as the steam laundries, and shirts with stiff collars and cuffs attached are therefore not popular. The cost of laundering a shirt with cuffs attached is the same as that charged for laundering a shirt without cuffs, while the cost of laundering a pair of separate cuffs is approximately 7 cents. This is another reason why shirts with cuffs attached are preferred.

Among the shirts heretofore imported into Peru, those from England are the best known and are generally preferred; except that these are never coat-cut, they do not differ essentially from the shirts imported from the United States.

The sizes of shirts sold in Peru are invariably stated in metric units, and the American system of sizes and of size marking is not well understood. The manufacturers of shirt collars and cuffs, therefore, who desire to obtain a market for their product in Peru, should mark all their goods in metric sizes. If it is not possible for the manufacturer to do this, he should at least stamp his merchandise with the inch size and along with this indicate the approximate size in centimeters. The sizes most in demand are those ranging from 36 to 44 centimeters.

The well-formed athletic figure with broad shoulders, requiring a shirt with long sleeves, is unknown in Peru. The average Peruvian man is inclined to be round-shouldered and hollow-chested and requires a shirt made accordingly. The use of sleeve garters is general among Peruvians who wear imported shirts and is an indication that the sleeves of these shirts are for the most part longer than is required.

A considerable number of shirts of the more expensive as well as of the cheaper varieties is manufactured in Lima and other cities of

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Peru. The most important shirt factory in Lima produces 1,500 to 2,000 dozen shirts per year. Most of these are retailed in the retail establishment conducted by the owners of the factory in Lima. This firm is also an important importer of shirts and at present (1918) has in stock a representative assortment of American shirts. Another factory produces 60 to 70 dozen monthly. Because of the difficulties involved in importing shirts from Europe and the United States at present and of the consequent high prices for imported shirts, the demand for shirts of domestic manufacture has increased, and this factory is enlarging its plant and increasing the number of its employees so as to be assured of an annual production of not less than 1,000 dozen shirts. Two other Lima factories make about 600 and 400 dozen shirts per year, respectively.

In addition, the manufacture of shirts as a household industry is carried on to a considerable extent by seamstresses, who do piecework and are satisfied when they earn 1 or 2 soles per day. The shirts made by these seamstresses are mostly for the account of the jobbers in Lima, who send the shirts into the Provinces for sale at the weekly fairs. These jobbers supply all the materials; the seamstress has no capital invested other than the machine that she uses, and this is sometimes rented from the neighboring pawnshop. An American sewing-machine company, by its system of selling machines on the installment plan, makes it possible for these seamstresses to own good machines with an outlay very little larger than is required for rent, and it is therefore the tendency among the seamstresses to own their own machines.

A representative factory in Lima gives the following as its prices for shirts of different kinds, per dozen: White cotton, pleated bosoms, with cuffs, 24 soles; white cotton, smooth bosoms, double cuffs, 28 soles; colored cotton, with piqué bosoms and cuffs, 32 soles; assorted cotton shirts, plain bosoms and stiff cuffs, 26 soles; striped mercerized shirts, negligee style, with double cuffs, 32 soles. The workmanship on these shirts is inferior, and imported shirts of equal quality that can be placed in this market at competing prices have no difficulty in competing with the shirts of local manufacture.

COLLARS AND CUFFS.

American collars are known in the market and they are beginning to be liked. When they were first introduced they were said to have several serious defects. One of these is that American collars are cotton, while Peruvians have been accustomed to linen collars, or at least think they have, for the remarks made in discussing imitation-linen shirts apply with equal force to the so-called linen collars formerly imported from Switzerland and Austria. Another drawback for the Peruvian market is that American collars are laundered with a dull finish. The well-dressed Peruvian insists on having his shirt bosom and collars laundered with a polish, and several of the laundries have adopted in their announcements the motto "Como un espejo" ("polished like a mirror").

Gradually the Peruvian is being convinced that collars that he formerly thought were linen are loosely woven cotton and not superior to the high-grade collars from the United States. Some American manufacturers are producing collars with a glossy finish that would

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satisfy the most exacting Peruvian and the demand for these collars will probably continue until the introduction of improved laundry methods in Peru makes it possible for men to have their collars laundered with the dull finish common in the United States.

Another criticism of the American collar is that the double collars have no cutout to permit the button in the back of the neck to pass freely, as have the collars of European manufacture. In Peru no launderers of collars have learned how to fold a double collar in such a manner that ample space is provided for the free movement of the tie band and the collar button. The Peruvian washerwoman, and even the steam laundries, mash the folds of a double collar tightly together. Much trouble is experienced in adjusting the necktie and much discomfort from the pressure of the collar on the button at the back of the neck. European collars have a semicircular cutout, which allows the button to pass through and are therefore more comfortable when laundered in the Peruvian style. This problem, like the two preceding, is largely one to be solved by the laundries. Until American manufacturers can be sure that modern laundry facilities are provided in Peru, it would probably be advisable for them to make their collars less stiff and to provide them with the cutout for the collar button.

There is a very small market for fancy collars and practically no market for fancy collars in white. Stiff collars of colored cotton materials are worn to some extent by the Indians and laboring classes. Soft collars are much worn by young men during the summer. There exists a demand for rubberized or celluloid collars but not in a great quantity, and the demand is growing weaker as the public becomes better acquainted with the cheap variety of cotton collars.

The shirt factories of Lima manufacture collars and cuffs, many of which are sold in the local retail establishments as of European manufacture. The style and finish of American collars, however, are so superior that I have never heard of any local manufacturer who pretended to produce them.

The size marking of collars is entirely metric in Peru. A 14½ collar means no more to a Peruvian client than would a 36 collar to an American. American manufacturers must adopt the metric system of size marking in this field. The sizes most in demand are 36 to 44; that is, the collars are 36 to 44 centimeters long, measured from buttonhole to buttonhole. In height the collars most in demand measure 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 5½ centimeters. The half-centimeter correspond roughly to the quarter-inch sizes in American collars.

In an order for 100 collars, the sizes would probably be about as follows: Size 36, 10 collars; size 37, 10 collars; size 38, 20 collars; size 39, 20 collars; size 40, 15 collars; size 41, 10 collars; size 42, 5 collars; size 43, 5 collars; size 44, 5 collars.

In collars of 36, 37, 38, and 39 lengths, the height would range from 4 to 5½ centimeters; in collars of 40 length, from 4 to 5 centimeters; in collars of 41 to 42 length, the height would run from 4 to 4½ centimeters; and in larger collars the height would be 3½ centimeters.

One prominent importer stated that the English collar is superior to all other collars imported into Peru because of the fact that it allows free movement of the tie band. English collars are less padded

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than American and are therefore more flexible when they come from the local laundries. This problem of laundering is one that American manufacturers, for the present at least, must take into consideration in this market.

In proportion to the total population, there are more separate cuffs used in Peru than in the United States. The use of detached cuffs, however, is gradually being supplanted by the shirt with cuffs attached. Older men, especially Europeans, are extremely conservative in matters of this kind and these still insist on the separate cuff. The separate cuffs in use are always white, even when worn with colored shirts. The cuffs most in use are those adjusted for cuff links with buttonholes at each end and a strap arrangement in the center for attaching them to the shirt sleeve. In discussing collars and cuffs, one importer invited attention to the fact that American collars and cuffs of the cheaper variety are made with a straight buttonhole, while similar collars and cuffs imported from Europe have buttonholes finished in the form of eyelets, which makes it easier to button to the shirt. On the whole, however, the average Peruvian importer will find no difficulty in selecting his stock from the complete line of samples of any standard American manufacturer.

NECKWEAR.

Neckwear is a line that the American manufacturer can and should control in Peru to a far greater extent than is at present the case. The reason for this failure is largely the fact that the American manufacturer has not studied the patterns most acceptable in Peru. A necktie that is a leader in the United States may be a flat failure in Peru just because it does not satisfy the Peruvian standard for color design. The taste of the Peruvian does not run to flaring color combinations. The taste for reds, greens, purples, and yellows, noted in Central America and the West Indies, does not exist in Peru. The Peruvian is conservative in his ideas of dress. By far the best-selling ties are the plain dark solid colors and the quiet combinations and "self" patterns.

Until recently most of the neckwear imported into Peru came from Italy, and the American share of this trade was very small. This was due in large measure to the fact that the Italian factories produce neckties of imitation silk, or mercerized silk, which was not subject to the high import tax collected on all-silk neckwear. Moreover, the Italian tie is frequently manufactured without padding or linings, is made as light as possible, and is packed in bulk, several gross to the case, which is important in view of the fact that neckwear imported into Peru is subject to an import duty based on the gross weight. Since the outbreak of the war the share of the United States in the silk-neckwear trade has risen from 2 per cent in 1913 to 12½ per cent in 1916. Inability to make immediate deliveries has caused some American exporters to take advantage of the privilege of substitution, with the result that many neckties from the United States have reached Peru that are wholly unsalable at prices profitable to the importer. In fact, until very recently the American exporter in his substitution seems to have been guided almost entirely by his experience in the West Indies and in certain countries of Central America.

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The Peruvian importer is broadminded in a matter of this sort and is ready to give American neckwear another chance. American manufacturers are rapidly adapting their product to the requirements of the Peruvian market, and dealers in neckwear believe that the American goods are rapidly creating for themselves a reputation in Peru so favorable that it will be difficult for the European article to supplant them even after the war.

The bulk of the trade is in four-in-hand and bow ties, of the regular flat-goods variety, with a smaller demand for knitted ties. Tubular woven ties are not well known in this field.

Knitted silk mufflers have not been introduced to any extent. The duty on silk knitted goods is $6.57 per kilo. It is believed, however, that a limited market for silk mufflers could be developed in spite of the necessarily high retail prices. Woolen mufflers are much worn in the Peruvian highlands. Most of these are woven or knit by the Indian women. Some of the products of these crude hand looms are of wonderful quality, especially those made of vicuña wool or the fur of the viscacha, a hare found in the Andean highlands. A market for brushed woolen mufflers of an inexpensive variety could probably be developed. The following comment by a prominent importer of neckwear will be of interest: "In regard to fancy neckwear manufactured in the United States, I have examined a great many samples, and also samples of silks to be used in their manufacture. They are extremely ugly and of colors that are never worn here, at least by the class of people who buy imported neckties and whose taste in the matter of wearing apparel is very good. The colors most demanded are navy blue, garnet, green in various shades, tans, lilac, and champagne."

There is noted a considerable range of prices, and neckties that can be retailed in Peru at $6 to $30 per dozen are acceptable.

UNDERWEAR.

Several of the cotton mills in Peru have recently undertaken the manufacture of underwear on a small scale. The product is, however, so inferior to the imported articles of this kind in both quality and price that the undertaking is not meeting with much encouragement and the output thus far has been negligible. The goods manufactured locally have been of the heavier ribbed cotton type, and in this type of underwear there is reason to believe that local manufacturers may in the end compete successfully in the less exacting markets of the interior. In goods of lighter weights, whether knit or flat piece goods, the local product has little chance of competing successfully with imported merchandise.

In knit underwear the union suit is still unknown in Peru. Enterprising American manufacturers have introduced the union suit in nainsook and a few are being sold. But little progress has as yet been made in introducing the union suit among the native Peruvians and the trade in this style of underwear is mostly with the members of the foreign colonies. It will require much intelligent advertising to make the union suit popular in Peru.

The French knit and balbriggan are the most popular types of underwear in Peru. Fabric underwear in both cross-grain nainsook

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and plain cambric or linen has been introduced with considerable success. The sleeveless, coat-cut shirt and knee-length drawers are gaining in popularity for summer wear. The simplicity of this class of underwear induced some of the local shirt factories to undertake its manufacture. The duty on this type of underwear is low, less than $0.60 per kilo, and the goods are so light that the imported articles have held their own and the local manufacture has all but been abandoned.

While Peru lies within the Tropics and is generally classed among the semitropical countries, manufacturers desiring to enter this market must not forget that within a few miles of the coast the mountains rise abruptly to tremendous altitudes and the climate is not unlike that of territories far removed from the Equator and the Tropics. It is in these mountain districts that the rich mines of Peru are located. Here there is to be found a prosperous community that is an important factor in the market for imported underwear. In these mountain regions it is seldom warm, even at midday; the nights are always cold and for most of the year the weather is severe. It frequently snows, and the demand is for the heaviest and warmest underwear that it is within the power of the laborer to purchase.

The laborers in the highlands can not, for the most part, afford woolen underwear, because of its high cost and the high import duties. As a substitute for wool, these miners use the heaviest cotton underwear to be had, and prefer the fleece-lined variety.

In the coastal region the chief demand is for lighter weights, fabric shirts and drawers or light knit goods. Here, too, however, the cold fogs that prevail from June to October create a demand for warm underwear. Prior to the war the better trade demanded a light all-wool garment. This type of underwear is not to be had at present in Peru, and the demand for it is very pressing. The American garment best adapted as a substitute for this all-wool clothing is a 50/50 wool and cotton mixture. This mixture, however, pays the same import duty as does the all-wool article and will not be able to compete with woolen goods when they again become available.

Silk underwear, because of the high original cost and almost prohibitive import duties, finds no market in Peru.

There is a demand for colored undershirts for the Indian trade and for sale in interior cities. Solid colors, rose, sky-blue, lavender, and tan are the most popular. There is also a demand for fancy striped shirts; the stripes must always be vertical and may be of practically any color. The shirts for this trade should be of a quality that can be placed in Peru at a cost of $5 to $7.50 per dozen garments.

The various systems of size marking adopted in Europe are all known in Peru. American garments do not meet any difficulty because of the system of size marking, and in so far as no system has been generally adopted in Peru, there is no reason why the American system should not in the end prevail.

HOSIERY—SUSPENDERS AND GARTERS—BELTS.

Except by the Indian women of the sierra, who are rarely seen without their knitting, no hosiery is manufactured in Peru. Before the war most of the hosiery imported came from Germany, and the

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effect of the war has been felt more in this line of wearing apparel than in any other.

Upon the outbreak of the war the Peruvian importer, finding it no longer possible to obtain hosiery from Germany, sought new sources of supply, especially in the United States. The American manufacturer, who had been dependent upon Germany for his dyes, was experimenting at this time with new dyes. Many of the hose in the manufacture of which the new dyes were used seemed up to standard when they left the mill, but the new dyes did not wear well. Some of them did not resist the voyage through the Tropics and no one who was in South America during 1915 failed to hear the chorus of complaint that was raised against the American hosiery industry by its South American customers.

Most of the goods having been purchased on cash terms, some American manufacturers were inclined to ignore the complaints of their foreign customers. But most of these complaints received careful attention, and in the end the importer received a square deal. The high quality of the American hose that is at present finding its way to this market is overcoming the prejudice at first aroused against this article of American manufacture. Practically no seamless hose were sold in Peru before the war, but there exists no prejudice against American seamless hose, and in general American hosiery is acceptable in Peru.

Woolen hose are worn almost universally during the winter months in the coastal region and throughout the year in the sierra. The English woolen hose are most popular and command the best prices. Of late American goods are gaining in popularity and there is no good reason why the American goods should not be successful in this market.

Lisle, commonly spoken of in Peru as Scotch linen, is much in demand, the best coming from France. Hosiery of this type is full-fashioned. The finish of the French lisle hose is said to be inferior to that of the American seamless hose, and the American article is gaining in popularity. Hose of this type are worn by the better-dressed men and are almost always black. The French hose is said to be superior to the American hose in the manner in which the top is finished. While the American article has the rib finished off plainly, the French is either turned under for a quarter to a half inch, or has one or two horizontal ribs near the top. As a result the French sock is more tightly elastic and clings more snugly to the calf.

In silk hosiery the United States is winning an enviable reputation in Peru. There is a fair sale for ribbed-silk hose of English manufacture, especially in two-color mixtures, but the standard silk hose of the United States leads in this field. The American idea of making the toe, heel, and and top of cotton and the body of silk has found immediate acceptance because it reduces the price appreciably and adds to the wearing quality of the sock. The artificial-silk hose have been well received also and should continue to enjoy a good market in Peru.

Fully 75 per cent of the better-grade hosiery sold in Peru is plain black, with a limited number of white and gray. Dark tan and navy blue also sell well, while fancy colors, green, champagne, etc., have little acceptance. In the cheaper grades also black predominates, but a larger percentage of colors is demanded.

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The regular American sizes are well understood. The manufacturer will find that in his orders for Peru the average will be about one size smaller than in the United States; No. 10 and not 10½ will be found to be the best-selling size in Peru. Exporters sometimes receive orders in which the sizes have not been carefully noted, and at such times this predominance of the smaller sizes should not be lost sight of.

In Peru the import duty is collected on hosiery (other than silk) on the basis of legal weight; that is, on the weight of the merchandise in its immediate wrapping. Hosiery for this market should be packed in plain paper bundles containing a dozen pairs each, instead of in the customary cardboard boxes. On silk hosiery the duty is collected on net weight.

Suspenders and garters are two articles of American production that are admittedly superior to their European competitors. Practically all the garters and suspenders sold in Peru to-day come from the United States. The two-piece suit is unpopular and belts are little worn, while suspenders are in far more common use in Peru than in other countries. Garters are generally of the pad type, but there is some demand for the chord garter as well. The three best-advertised American garters and an American make of suspenders are known everywhere and are giving universal satisfaction. As a result of the extreme humidity the rubber deteriorates rapidly and metal parts of steel tend to rust.

The native Peruvian seldom wears a belt. Foreigners and those Peruvians who take up tennis, golf, or other games wear belts occasionally. The few belts sold are usually 1 inch or 1½ inches wide, of tan or black leather; they should have metal parts of nickeled brass or other material that does not rust readily.

NIGHT GARMENTS—PUTTEES AND LEGGINGS.

Pajamas are still new in Peru, but they are gaining in popularity and are being more generally adopted both as sleeping suits and as lounging suits. While the standard American collarless pajama coat is used to some extent, pajamas are usually ordered with collars because of their use as lounging suits. The collar desired is not the military style sometimes used in the United States but a regular soft turnover collar. The collar, pocket, and cuffs are usually of one color, while the body is of another; for example, tan pajamas, with blue collar, pocket, and cuffs. The first pajamas sold in Peru are said to have come from England and to have been of this style, which has remained popular. Practically all the pajamas sold are mercerized cotton, piece-dyed. The prints common in the United States find no sale. All are made with buttons, not loops, and generally without frog trimmings. If frog trimmings are ordered it will be specified either that they are to be of mercerized cotton instead of silk or that they be shipped separately to be put on in Peru. Pajamas with silk trimmings pay a higher rate of import duty than do plain cotton pajamas. In pajamas the American sizes are well understood. Peruvian men are usually smaller than men in the United States, and the order from Peru will call for a greater percentage of the smaller sizes. Pajamas pay import duty on legal weight. The manufacturer should pack his goods for export in plain paper pack-

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ages, six pairs to the package, instead of in cardboard boxes. Nightshirts are practically never imported; the few that are worn are made locally.

In the mining region and generally throughout the sierra men seem to prefer the high shoes to seperate shoes and leggings. A good grade of such high-topped shoes is made in Lima and elsewhere by hand and sold at a low price. The demand for puttees and leggings for riding is limited to the well-to-do farming class, and is mostly for a high-grade pigskin legging that heretofore has come mostly from England. It is not to be expected that the volume of this trade will noticeably increase. Fancy leggings for uniformed chauffeurs are in some demand but these are frequently imported with the uniform direct from Paris.

WOMEN'S WEAR.

SUITS AND CLOAKS.

Ready-to-wear suits are sold in Peru only in limited quantities. The French styles are those best known and are preferred to all others. This is accounted for by the fact that many of the better-to-do families among the Peruvians have educated their sons and daughters in France, and have, as a consequence, been in closer relation with Paris than with any other foreign city. Ready-to-wear suits from the United States, until a few years ago, were quite unknown in this market. The prestige of the American goods has suffered because of the fact that soon after the outbreak of the war some importers brought in from the United States garments of inferior quality and workmanship and sold these as the best that could be obtained from the United States. Moreover, the high prices that have prevailed during the war have limited the demand for suits of the best quality. The Peruvian customer, therefore, has not had a fair opportunity to study the American product but has been able only to compare an inferior article of American manufacture with the superior French article with which she had become familiar before the war.

No store in Peru can be said to carry a complete assortment of ready-to-wear suits in stock. Generally such suits are ordered from samples and delivered months afterwards from the foreign factory by parcel post, or the suit is made to order in accordance with the sample selected by the customer.

One department store in Lima carries a fair assortment of sample suits in stock. This store has a dressmaking department in which these models are reproduced with or without modifications to suit the requirements of the customer. It has among its patrons the most fashionable women of Lima, and women from the Provinces sometimes have their suits made here to measure rather than import them from abroad. The suits are of good finish and the prices range from $70 to $100.

Lima is visited periodically by modistes from France. One of these makes annual trips to Paris, purchasing suits that she sells to her customers in Peru. This modiste has a large circle of acquaintances throughout Peru. She has made a careful study of the Peruvian woman and her ability to select suits that will sell in

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Peru is remarkable. In general the Peruvian woman prefers the imported tailored suit to that of local manufacture because of its better style and finish.

Several of the well-known Paris houses have agencies in Lima. Among these may be mentioned Les Galeries de Lafayette, Les Grands Magasins du Louvre, and Au Printemps de Paris. These agencies have complete lines of samples from which they take orders. The oldest and best-known agency in Lima is that of Les Galeries de Lafayette, first opened in 1909. It is the custom of these agencies to make individual sales at retail from samples; 25 per cent of the price is collected when the order is taken. The order is forwarded by mail to the Paris factory and the suit sent by parcel post or freight. The client is notified of the arrival of the suit, and if satisfied receives the suit upon payment of the balance due. Formerly these agencies guaranteed satisfaction, but it has been found from experience that this plan does not sufficiently protect the interests of the agency. At present the customer must either accept the suit when it arrives, or the agency will undertake to sell it for the customer, retaining as insurance against loss the deposit made when the order was taken. If the suit is sold for an amount in excess of the balance due, or 75 per cent of the original price, this excess is paid to the original client as a refund on the deposit made with the order. In normal times probably not less than 75 per cent of all the ready-to-wear suits imported into Peru are sold by these three Paris agencies.

Climatic conditions in Lima are not radically different from those of Paris or other European cities, and the suits sold in Lima do not differ greatly in either material or style from those worn by women in Paris or New York.

Since the war ready-to-wear suits from the United States are beginning to be known in Lima. At first there was a strong prejudice against them, founded to some extent on the fact that the first suits to be imported were of inferior quality and workmanship and did not fairly represent the American product. As the better goods are becoming known and people are learning that the high prices are not American but war prices, the prejudice against American suits is disappearing. There is no good reason why American suits should not occupy an important position in this market when conditions return to normal.

The colors most used in the winter months are dark blues, browns, green, gray, slate, etc. At no season of the year are very bright colors much in vogue. Lima follows the styles of Paris rather closely; the women of Lima are eager readers of the fashion papers. The seasons in Peru, however, are exactly the reverse of the seasons of Paris; when it is summer in Paris it is winter in Lima and vice versa. Therefore the winter styles are in demand in the Lima market just six months later than they are in Paris or New York. This does not mean that season-end styles may be unloaded indiscriminately in Peru. On the contrary, the women of Lima have had an opportunity to profit by the experience of their foreign sisters, and their taste is therefore more exacting in the selection of suits. The advantage to be derived from the reversal of the seasons lies in the fact that there need not be so much rush in filling orders for Peru and goods for this market can therefore be more leisurely manufactured.

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The cloaking fabrics that are acceptable in other foreign markets are in use in Peru. There is little demand for fancy fabrics in colors; cloaks are usually of a single color. There is no establishment in Lima that carries a stock of cloaks for women. The largest department store that has a department for the sale of suits and cloaks for women carries only a few samples in stock but operates a large manufacturing department where cloaks are made to order. The market is so limited and the volume of the business so uncertain that it has not been found profitable to carry considerable stocks of made-up garments. The prices for cloaks made to order in this department store range from $10 for the cheapest to $50 or more for the better garments.

The greatest demand is for evening and opera coats, which are usually of the best available materials, of the latest fashion from Paris, and are made to order by the numerous women's tailors and modistes of Lima. Here, as in the case of suits, the Paris agencies in Lima take orders from samples or from catalogues for single garments and the goods are imported by parcel post.

The taste for furs has followed that of other foreign cities, and, in spite of the fact that the winter in Lima is extremely mild, there is a considerable sale for furs and for fur-trimmed suits and cloaks. The mildness of the winter makes unnecessary the wearing of very heavy winter coats, and only lighter cloaks are in demand. In general the smooth fabrics are more used than the rough for both suits and cloaks.

SHIRT WAISTS.

Shirt waists are generally worn by women of all classes in Peru, especially during the summer months. Although, as has already been stated, the Peruvian women do much sewing, most of the shirt waists are imported ready-made, and the imported article seems to compete successfully with the product of the local dressmaking establishments. There is an equally strong demand for fancy washable shirt waists for summer wear and for shirt waists to wear with tailored suits during the winter.

In every Peruvian city there are small stores, known locally as tiendas, in which underwear, shirt waists, and skirts of local manufacture are sold. These garments are made by women who work at home and are paid by the piece. The materials are supplied by the local dry-goods store. In Lima several importers of piece goods do a business of considerable volume in ready-made garments, which they distribute by means of salesmen and peddlers who cover the interior, attending the provincial fairs and markets. An increasing amount of this business is in imported garments, and the demand for low-priced garments for this trade is growing. Waists for this trade must be of the very cheapest grade, such as can be sold locally for $1 up.

In Lima and the larger cities shirt waists selling at retail at $3 to $6 are the most in demand, and the market for higher-grade garments is limited. The Japanese and Chinese merchants have begun to import embroidered waist patterns, which are finding a ready sale. These are usually of batiste or cotton crêpe of the cheapest variety. The Paris agencies already mentioned do a considerable business in high-grade waists but carry no stock.

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The American shirt waist is considered superior in point of salability to shirt waists imported from any other country. The high-grade shirt waists from France find a ready sale, but the demand for them is limited to the wealthy class, and the local dressmaking establishments compete successfully for this trade. The most profitable business is in shirt waists of the cheaper and medium qualities. These are being imported in increasing quantities from the United States. There is every reason to believe that this trade can be retained for American exporters, if due care is given to it and an earnest effort made to study the requirements of the local market and to produce shirt waists that can be sold at prices within the purchasing power of the Peruvian public.

PETTICOATS AND SEPARATE SKIRTS—KIMONOS.

Petticoats of taffeta, moiré, liberty silk, etc., are much worn by all classes, and the imported skirts are preferred to those that are made locally. Cotton skirts in black and colors as well as in white are also worn; there can not be said to be any predominant color. Usually the skirt matches the suit, and in summer the colors are bright, while in winter the dark colors are most in demand. Except the Indian women, who wear plain muslin petticoats that they make themselves, the women of Peru demand garments much like those used elsewhere, and the average American manufacturer would probably find that his assortment would satisfy his Peruvian client. In the sierra the Indian women wear very full skirts of baize, commonly spoken of in Peru as Manchester cloth. These skirts are of solid colors, red, purple, blue, green, etc.

Several retail stores in Lima manufacture petticoats and skirts for stock and do a considerable jobbing business in these garments with interior points. The cheaper silk petticoats, retailing in Lima for about $6, are those most in demand. There is, however, some demand for petticoats that sell for as much as $15. Cotton petticoats should retail at $2 to $3 or even less.

The Paris agencies in Lima always carry a stock of imported skirts and petticoats, especially silk and imitation silk, which they sell at retail for $4 to $15.

The trade in separate skirts is rapidly increasing, and experience seems to show that the imported skirt is preferable from the point of view of both price and style and finish to those made in Peru. The product of the American factories, however, is much criticized because of its poor finish as compared with the garments from France.

Knit skirts are not to be had at present. The Indian women of the sierra formerly did a thriving business in hand-knit woolen skirts. The high prices paid for wool at present have made this industry unprofitable and probably a knit skirt of wool would prove a good seller in Peru.

The kimono is becoming more and more popular. Several stores carry them in stock, the imported varieties being preferred, and the introduction of Japanese kimonos is being undertaken. No bridal trousseau is complete in Peru without one or more fancy kimonos of French manufacture; in fact, the kimono is a garment to which the Peruvian woman gives much consideration. The flowered-silk

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and cotton kimonos from Japan and China seem to be developing a strong demand in Lima, and their cheapness will probably make it possible to introduce them throughout the interior Provinces of Peru.

WASH DRESSES—APRONS.

Until recently little effort had been made to develop a demand in Peru for ready-to-wear wash dresses. It had been the belief of importers that the demand was for a dress of such a low price that the ready-made variety could not be imported and be sold at a profitable price. Recently, especially during 1917, American commercial travelers have introduced wash dresses of American manufacture with considerable success and the demand for these will probably increase. The summer season in Lima is of very short duration, and even during the summer the early morning and the late evening are cool. Extremely lightweight dresses therefore do not find much demand. The market is rather for a better grade of street dress.

The women of the working class either make their own dresses or purchase the extremely low-priced garments of local manufacture sold by peddlers in the public market places. A wash dress suitable for summer wear for school girls and young women could probably be developed. This would, however, require a carefully conducted campaign to overcome the present prejudice in favor of the home-made dress.

Working women wear a roomy gingham apron, square-cut, wide enough to cover the skirt completely, and gathered to a belt of the same material with long ends for tying around the waist. These women frequently wear a blouse-like waist of material to match the apron. The use of these aprons is very common in both Lima and the provinces. Materials for them are manufactured in the local cotton mills and most of the aprons of this variety are made at home.

Fancy white aprons with dainty ruffles or lace and embroidery trimmings are much worn by women of the better classes in their homes. These are usually made in the local convent schools or are imported from Paris. There is also a considerable demand for plain white aprons for nurse girls. Probably the greatest demand is, however, for aprons for schoolgirls. Several of the schools in Lima and elsewhere require each girl pupil to have one or more aprons as part of her outfit. These aprons are frequently ordered in large lots through the Paris agencies and the trade is very desirable.

Aprons and apronlike blouses for infants up to five or six years are likewise much worn, especially during the summer months. These are usually of gingham or some other strong cotton material and many are imported from France. Prior to the war most of the aprons imported by Peru were from Germany, and to-day the French manufacturers are supplying this trade.

There is a considerable trade in stamped patterns for fancy aprons, which the women like to embroider for themselves.

SWEATERS—VEILINGS.

Introduced into Peru only a year or two ago, the fancy sweater for women has proved to be a garment adapted to the climatic conditions and acceptable to the taste of the Peruvian public. Formerly

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the short knit or crocheted jacket or sweater of wool or cotton was much worn, especially about the home, during the cold damp months of winter. These garments were imported chiefly from Germany and Spain. To-day they are imported from England, the United States, and other countries. Sweaters, either of all wool or of wool mixed with cotton, are much in demand in both Lima and the Provinces, and the sweater is coming rapidly to be a garment generally used by all classes.

The most popular style is the closely knit jersey sweater open at the chest, with prominent pockets, confined at the waist with a loosely fitting belt or sash. Sweaters of imitation silk or mercerized cotton are especially in demand. In the lighter-weight sweaters sport colors, stripes, and, in general, the colors that are popular in the United States, are acceptable. In woolen sweaters the colors most in demand are dark blues, browns, or purple. Silk sweaters are sold at about $20; the best demand is for cotton sweaters that sell for about $5.

At present most of the sweaters imported by Peru come from the United States, and American manufacturers seem to be gaining ground in this field in competition with those of Spain and France. The American sweater suits the Peruvian woman because of its excellent style and finish.

Women in deep mourning usually wear a veil of some woolen material, especially English crêpe, and for ordinary mourning a silk veil of gauzy thinness is worn. These are usually square, measuring from 1 to 1½ meters, with a wide hem, and are worn without a hat. Ordinary veils are worn with hats, and the styles are those advertised in the French fashion journals. The rules observed with regard to mourning in Peru are far more elaborate and more strict than in the United States, and the demand for mourning veils is proportionately greater.

The use of a head covering resembling a lightweight black shawl, and known in Peru as the mantilla, is very common. Church regulations require that Peruvian women wear this mantilla, which is frequently of very fine lace and is always black, when they attend mass or other public function in the church. Every Peruvian woman has several of these veils or mantillas. The best come from Spain and France and many are of the finest lace. The cheapest mantillas sell for about $3 and the best for $100 and even more.

KNIT UNDERWEAR AND LINGERIE.

Knit underwear is worn in winter only by the women of Lima. In the sierra and other sections of Peru undergarments of flannel made at home are worn more than imported knit garments. Indeed, there are sections of Peru in which knit garments for women are quite unknown.

The knit union suit is practically unknown. There is a limited market for separate garments of cotton or wool or mixtures. There is very little demand for knit drawers. The women wear short flannel petticoats as protection in winter and prefer corset covers and drawers of cotton fabrics to the knit kind. In the sierra and among the laboring classes shirts and drawers of cotton flannel are much worn. The only demand for union suits comes from the women

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of the foreign colonies and the suits are mostly for use in the cold regions of the sierra.

Knit cotton shirts, mercerized, are in considerable demand in both Lima and the Provinces. Before the war these were imported exclusively from Germany, and to-day the stocks are exhausted. There is a strong demand for this garment at all times in Lima, and there seems to be no good reason why the manufacturers of the United States should not be able to compete successfully with those of other countries.

The usual trimming on knit underwear is crocheted edging and insertion or beading.

The women of the poorer classes in Peru do not wear imported underwear, and knit underwear is practically unknown to them. The market for this class of goods is limited to the well-to-do.

The market for ready-to-wear lingerie is not much developed. It has been customary for the women either to make their own garments or to employ a seamstress to make them. Experience, however, seems to show that the imported ready-to-wear garments can be sold at lower prices than the homemade garments, and it is not improbable that the demand for the ready-to-wear goods will increase. The stocks carried in the Lima stores are not well assorted nor complete. The demand is exclusively for white garments.

The combination chemise and drawers is not popular, nor is the combination corset cover and skirt much in demand. The demand is almost exclusively for separate garments. Silk underwear, because of the prohibitive import duties, is not in demand. The brassière, which was introduced recently from the United States, is in favor and its success would seem to indicate that other lines might be developed as easily if the proper effort were made.

White cotton petticoats with hems and beading are popular and petticoats with much lace and other trimming are worn with thin summer dresses. Several of the girls' schools and convents of Lima make up lingerie to order, and in this manner the market for imported garments of the better grades is further reduced.

Before the war lingerie was imported mostly from Switzerland. At present the United States has a portion of this trade, but it is generally believed that it will revert to Switzerland with a return of normal conditions.

The life of the average Peruvian woman is somewhat retired. Most of the girls learn to do embroidery and other fancy needlework while attending the convent schools, and it is natural that even the most aristocratic women in Peru prefer to spend much of their time in sewing. As a result, the market for ready-made lingerie is extremely limited. The Peruvian woman likes dainty garments, however, and her highly developed taste for fine needlework makes her a severe judge in matters of this sort. It is not improbable that an intelligent effort to introduce the high-grade lingerie used in the United States would be amply rewarded in Peru.

The three Paris agencies already mentioned do a considerable trade in lingerie, the exact volume of which is unknown. The Post Office Department keeps no record of the contents of parcels received, and goods imported by parcel post do not enter into the official trade statistics of Peru. So important, however, is this trade through the

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mails that the regular importers have repeatedly protested to the Government of Peru against the special facilities enjoyed by importers who employ this system.

In addition to the convents and orphanages that devote themselves to the manufacture of underwear, many poor women in Lima and throughout Peru sew for merchants who send peddlers throughout the country to attend the provincial fairs and markets. The volume of the sales of some of these is surprisingly large.

The Peruvian market for ready-to-wear lingerie is undeveloped. The demand is for articles of the kind used in other countries, and the tendency is for the trade to grow.

HOSIERY.

The greatest demand is for full-fashioned hosiery. Before the war the stocking most worn was a lisle-thread article with openwork on the sides; these came from France and are not to be had any more. A stocking has been imported from the United States, which is inferior to the high-grade French goods in both fit and quality, and the high price at which retailers have tried to sell these has tended to discredit the American stocking. Moreover, the stockings imported several years ago from the United States had been dyed with inferior colors, and this injured the good name of the American goods.

At present a satisfactory grade of silk and imitation-silk stocking is being imported from the United States, but it will require much patient and intelligent effort to overcome the bad name that has been given to the American stocking in Peru.

A very cheap grade of cotton stocking is made in the cotton mills of Lima. The scarcity of dyes, however, has made it impossible for these mills to supply a complete assortment, and the cheap stocking from the United States is competing successfully in this field at present, though in normal times the American mills probably will not be able to produce a stocking so cheap that it can pay the cost of importation and still compete in this field. If such a thing is shown to be possible, it is not improbable that the local industry would be granted protection in the form of increased import duties.

Mercerized stockings of French manufacture were popular in Peru before the war. They sold for about $4 per dozen, and the Paris agencies always carried them in stock, retailing them for $1 per pair. Full-fashioned lisle hose, which were imported in considerable quantities, were sold before the war by the Paris agencies in Lima in dozen lots at $6 to $12. The American silk and imitation-silk hose are proving acceptable and will probably be able to hold the enviable place they are making for themselves in this market.

Stockings are always of solid colors and usually match the dress. Black is worn always to church and on many other occasions by Peruvian women, and the demand for black stockings is much greater than the demand for any other colors. For evening wear, however, stockings of all the fancy colors are in demand, and an assortment to be complete must cover a wide range of colors.

The import duties on silk are almost prohibitive, and the retail price at which silk hose must be sold in Peru is practically double the retail price of the same goods in the United States. The demand

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is for a stocking that can be retailed in Lima at $1 to $2 per pair, and because of the high cost of importation the demand is for a stocking with especially good wearing qualities.

In 1916 over 50 per cent of the stockings imported into Peru were of American manufacture, the strongest competitor of the United States being Spain. A considerable trade in high-grade stockings is being developed by enterprising firms who have sent their catalogues to Peru. The average importer in Peru takes advantage of the limited market and the consequent lack of keen competition to raise the prices on his goods beyond the limit that would be considered to bring in a fair profit in other markets. The result is that many families have adopted the practice of importing wearing apparel direct and it has been stated that this practice frequently results in saving half the price demanded for similar articles in the retail shops of Lima. This condition accounts for the success of the Paris agencies already referred to, and there is reason to believe that American manufacturers would find it possible to develop a very desirable trade by simply distributing their catalogues in Peru. One American manufacturer has already adopted this practice with success.

That the present is an especially opportune time to enter this market is apparent from the fact that goods ordered from Europe require many months for delivery, while those from the United States can be delivered with practically no delay.

CORSETS—GARTERS—BELTS.

Probably no article of wearing apparel manufactured in the United States has been more successful in Peru than has the American corset. This success has been due to the excellence of the American corset and to the intelligent efforts made to make it popular in Peru. Even in the normal years preceding the war the American corset had won for itself an important place in Peruvian trade, and the statistics for 1916 show that most of the imports came from the United States in that year. The success of such special lines as the American corset, garters, suspenders, etc., should serve to stimulate the American exporter of other lines.

In Lima there is a small corset factory that manufactures corsets to measure for its customers, making a specialty of maternity corsets. Its prices are extremely high and its output does not compete with the standard American corset.

The Escuela Tailler Santa Rosa in Lima is a girls' industrial school conducted by French nuns. This school has its own shops in which embroidery, dressmaking, and especially corset making are taught. The output of these shops is of limited volume and is sold to clients introduced by the patrons of the school, or is made to order. Corsets made at this school are sold at $12.50 for those of batiste with lace trimmings to $30 for those of more expensive materials. The school makes a specialty of outfits for brides and baptismal parties, and imports all its materials direct from Paris.

No special type of corset can be said to be in demand as compared with others. In general, however, corsets laced in the back are preferred. The materials most in demand are batiste and mercerized cotton with interwoven silk flowers.

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The demand is mostly for colored corsets; sky-blue, pink or lilac are more worn than white. The women of Peru are not very exacting in the matter of figure in the corset. The demand is rather for a durable, comfortable corset that will sell for about $1.50 for the cheapest kinds worn by working women and for $5, $6, or $8 for the better grades.

Corset waists are little worn except by very young girls or by women in delicate health. The brassiere, which has been introduced recently, is proving popular.

If American manufacturers will continue to conduct this trade as they are doing at present, there is every reason to believe that the American corset will retain its present popularity in Peru.

The use of corsets with garters is becoming more and more general in Peru. There is practically no demand for fancy round garters with buckles. Women who wear round garters prefer the simplest elastic band and the working women make their own garters. In general, the garter matches the stocking in color, and its use is largely limited to schoolgirls in short frocks.

Belts are worn with shirt-waist suits during the summer months. During the summer of 1917–18 patent-leather or imitation patent-leather belts were much worn. Styles change, however, and the next season may bring no demand at all for the type of belt that was popular a year ago. The organization of the Girl Scout movement is creating a demand for plain leather belts suitable to wear with the scout uniform or other sport costume. The buckles are much the same as those used in the United States; they should always be of rust-proof material so as to resist the dampness of the climate.

CHILDREN'S WEAR.

Suits of cotton, wool, and worsted are worn, but in general the demand is only for the lighter-weight woolen suits. The custom of wearing knickerbockers that do not match the coat is rather general, and thus it has never been desirable to supply two pairs of knickerbockers with the coat to match, but to have in stock a supply of separate knickerbockers.

Boys' suits have recently been imported from the United States and have proved acceptable. They have been found cheaper than similar suits from France and are more comfortable and practical. The most popular suits are white and natural linen or cotton, either with plain coat and knickerbockers or in sailor style, but always with short trousers. The styles that are popular in the United States will be acceptable in Peru and the manufacturer will probably find it possible to satisfy his Peruvian trade without adding to his designs.

For winter wear there is a demand for two-piece suits of cotton drill or wool and cotton mixtures. These are made in considerable quantities in Lima and are distributed throughout the country by peddlers. The prices at which they are sold are extremely low and it will be difficult for the imported articles to compete for this trade.

Caps to match the suit are not much worn except by the poor children. Fancy straw hats and caps are worn instead.

The wealthier classes insist on tailor-made suits for their boys even at the age of 10, and the prejudice against ready-made suits for

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boys, except the linen suits for summer wear, is quite as strong as it is against similar suits for adults. It will not be found easy to overcome this prejudice. The ready-made suit is discredited in Peru by the fact that heretofore the only ready-made suit for either men or boys that has been known has been the cheap drill suit that is sold to the Indian and laboring man's child for a price surprisingly low. The high-grade ready-made suits of the United States are unknown in Peru. The fact that American summer suits for men and for boys have met with an enthusiastic welcome would seem to indicate that a demand can be developed for the higher-grade woolen suits also. The field is still new, however, and it is not possible to foresee the future. There is no doubt that the product of the American clothing factory is far superior in style and finish to the tailor-made suits worn in Peru and that it is produced at a price that will enable it to compete. The American manufacturer who undertakes to introduce his garments in Peru will meet the opposition of the tailors, who are numerous, and this opposition will have the sympathy of the public to which he desires to make his sales. Only a most careful campaign intelligently and adroitly conducted will succeed in breaking down the prejudice and opposition, but in the end the ready-made suits from the United States will probably share the popularity already won by American fancy summer suits and sport goods.

For very small boys two-piece knit suits with cap to match are popular during the winter months.

Except of cotton undershirts for boys there is practically no importation of night garments or underwear for children. Coarse cotton shirts are produced in the local cotton mills, and similar shirts of better finish are imported, almost exclusively from Spain. The shirts that have been imported from the United States are very inferior in finish to the Spanish shirts and can not compete in price with the coarse shirts produced in Peru.

The night garments and underwear for children are either made at home or purchased from the convent schools. Night garments of several varieties are in use. For summer wear the long shirt is commonly used, and for winter wear a combination suit, with closed feet or long legs is worn. These may be of cotton flannel or similar material.

That it will be difficult to introduce ready-made underwear for children is apparent from the experience of a company that during 1917 opened a retail store. This company found its trade negligible from the start and finally had to close its doors, although its stock was good and its prices well within reason.

For winter wear long cotton hose reaching over the knee are commonly worn by both boys and girls. During the summer months half-hose are much worn. These half-hose may be either plain white or striped. Fine woolen hose are worn by the children of the well-to-do families but only in limited quantities. Heavy woolen hose for play are also much worn, especially by boys who play soccer, a game very general in Peru. The greatest demand is, however, for a strong cotton stocking with a seam down the back.

Black is the color most worn, and there is a small demand for tans and white. The prices should be about $6 per dozen for the bet-

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ter grades at retail and for the cheaper varieties about $3 per dozen. The Paris agencies carry in stock black stockings retailing as high as $8 per dozen. The half-hose retail at $0.25 per pair. In the finer grades the preferance is for lisle rather than for silk or mercerized hose.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The gloves most worn by men in Peru are suede or kid; woolen gloves are worn in the sierra. The women wear gloves of practically every variety—kid, suede, lisle, cotton, and silk. Before the war fabric gloves (cotton, lisle, or silk) were much worn in Peru by women and to some extent by men, especially by military men and house servants. These gloves were imported almost exclusively from Germany, and although some are now imported from Spain and Italy, the supply is not sufficient to satisfy the demand. In both leather and fabric gloves there is a shortage, and American manufacturers seem unable to supply a glove that can be sold at a low enough price to satisfy the market.

In general American gloves are inferior to the gloves formerly imported from Germany. The American leather gloves lack the finish and style of the French goods and the American fabric gloves are coarse and expensive, when compared with the gloves that formerly came from Germany.

Leather gloves for men sell at prices ranging from $2.50 to $3 per pair, and similar gloves for women sell a little cheaper. Black silk gloves with double finger tips sell for $1 per pair and in other colors the price is $1.25 or even more. There is at all times a strong demand for good cotton gloves that retail in Lima for about $0.50 per pair. Lisle gloves that retail for $1.50 are also much in demand because they seem to fit the hand better and to wear longer than other kinds. There is a market for cheap seamed cotton gloves for domestic servants and for soldiers.

Handkerchiefs for women may be of linen, cotton, or silk. The demand is for very fancy handkerchiefs. The Peruvian women devote much time to fancy needlework and often prefer to use handkerchiefs that they have embroidered, many of which are exquisite examples of artistic effort. Not a few women of the laboring class devote themselves to needlework as a means of earning a livelihood and produce embroidered handkerchiefs, which they sell from house to house or in little shops. Chinese and Japanese importers find a ready sale for cheap silk handkerchiefs.

Handkerchiefs for men that retail at $1.50 per dozen are in greatest demand. There is a limited demand for better handkerchiefs at $5 per dozen up. Handkerchiefs with embroidered initials are not imported; the initials are embroidered at home.

There is a small demand for bathrobes of the least expensive varieties for men and women. The demand is exclusively for cotton bathrobes, and these are usually white or striped with blue or pink.

TRADE METHODS.

The Peruvian market for manufactured goods, especially for wearing apparel, presents unusual difficulties of various kinds to the foreign exporter desiring to introduce his goods. While Lima

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and that part of central Peru that is reached by several short railways from Lima are by far the most important markets in Peru for wearing apparel, foreign merchants, and especially American exporters, are apt to make the mistake of concluding that the commercial activities of Peru are centralized largely in Lima and that the thorough canvassing of the Lima territory and the appointment of a satisfactory agent in Lima will assure the fair distribution of his goods throughout the Republic.

The Republic of Peru is characterized by its lack of centralization, especially industrial and commercial centralization. There are no trunk lines that bring the north and south into touch with the center, or the interior regions with the coast. Southern Peru, that is, the region traversed by the Southern Railways of Peru between Mollendo and Cuzco, with Arequipa for its metropolis, is as independent commercially of Callao and Lima and central Peru as if it were an independent country. Likewise the rich cotton district of Ica, with Pisco for its port, the sugar district of the Chicama Valley, with Salaverry for its port and Trujillo for its metropolis, and the Piura district of northern Peru, reached through the port of Paita, are as many separate and distinct commercial districts, each with its own peculiar demands and problems. While it would certainly be unprofitable for a commercial traveler with only limited lines to cover all these territories, it has been found that the traveler whose samples represent a sufficient variety of goods to make possible the taking of orders for a great variety of merchandise is able to show good returns for the time spent in covering the different regions rather thoroughly.

It is well that the exporter be given here at least a general idea of the character of the usual retail store in which his goods will be handled in Peru. The holding of periodical fairs in the larger provincial towns in Peru dates back to the earliest period of Spanish colonial administration and was probably inherited from the Inca civilization. The permanent retail store grew out of these fairs, and the first permanent stores carried stocks of those articles for which there was found to exist a more or less constant demand. These stores were general stores to which the name of bazaar, or almacen de abarrotes, was frequently given. Their stock usually consisted of hardware, tools, and agricultural implements; of piece goods and woolens; of provisions in demand that were not produced in the locality; of boots, shoes, and hats; in short, of every kind of merchandise for which there was found to exist a dependable demand. This type of store is the only one known in most provincial towns in Peru to-day.

The commercial traveler who wishes to visit Piura, Trujillo, and similar trading centers in Peru, should have with him samples representing a large number of closely related but diversified lines. The salesman who is making a specialty of ready-to-wear clothing should have a full line of knit goods, underwear, hosiery, jersey suits, sweaters, etc. He should have samples of hats, caps, gloves, garters, suspenders, and corsets. He should have a vast assortment of notions, cheap but good jewelry, especially pins and buttons, ornaments for the hair suited to Peruvian tastes, and also complete lines of threads and yarns, needles and pins. He should also bring with

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him samples of ribbons, tapes, and braids. The articles mentioned by no means exhaust the list of samples that might well find a place in the lines to be carried by such a salesman.

Once in an interior city of Bolivia I heard of a commercial traveler who was said to have sold several hundred thousand dollars' worth of goods in the little interior city of Cochabamba and to have made a profitable trip to Santa Cruz, many miles off the railway, traveling many days on muleback and shipping his samples on pack animals. I had the good fortune of seeing this man's samples. He had 32 big sample trunks with him many miles off the railway in a region where the only highways were mountain trails suitable for pack animals. He was a man of much culture and of attractive personality. His trip had cost a great deal, but he had made it profitable. The reason for his success was the fact that he had in his trunks samples of nearly every line of merchandise usually on sale in the Bolivian almacen de abarrotes, and lines not covered by his samples were represented by catalogues from which he took orders. This man consumed a full year in covering Bolivia. He remained long enough in each city that he visited to make the acquaintance of the principal dealers and win many friends. He was able to give his personal attention to the delivery of the goods ordered and thus smooth over complaints and remedy mistakes.

There are not wanting in Peru commission houses that carry numerous lines and cover the country fairly well; these houses are equipped to render invaluable service to the American exporter. The difficulty is that most of them have already taken on about as many lines as they can profitably handle. The American exporter of wearing apparel has the disadvantage of a late arrival in the market, and for some of his lines at least he will find it necessary to develop his own distributing agencies. Moreover, many of these old-established houses have acquired the ultraconservative spirit that characterizes Peru, and can not be depended upon, if left to their own initiative, to throw into the introduction of a new line the energy and enthusiasm that are necessary for success.

The American exporter, however, will not find it always profitable or even safe to deal directly with customers in the interior cities of Peru. In Peru there are only 16 cities in which banks or branch banks of any kind are established. In all the remaining cities of Peru collections must be made through the established commission houses and jobbers who have headquarters at Lima or some other port city, and the services of these establishments are required in making deliveries, etc. Most American exporters have found it advantageous to employ their own selling force in introducing their lines and in stimulating their trade through periodical visits to the territory, but to conduct their business, especially with customers located in the interior, through some commission firm or strong agency with headquarters in either Lima or Arequipa. In such provincial towns as Trujillo, Piura, Pisco, etc., capable agents can be found, and it is always best to be represented by some one well known locally. No exporter, however, should depend wholly upon his agent in Peru to develop the market for his goods. He should, on the contrary, cover the larger cities with his own salesmen from time to time and depend upon his agent for services such as would be rendered by the bank or credit and collection agencies at home.

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A very important American cotton manufacturer was represented in Peru by a commission house of great strength, probably the best house of its kind in Peru and a house that specialized in cotton goods. The manufacturer, however, sent a representative to Peru, who covered Lima in much the same manner as the manufacturer would expect one of his salesmen to cover a city in his American territory. In three weeks the representative had taken more orders in Lima alone than the agent had taken in the whole of Peru during any single year. Visits of this kind give the exporter an idea of the market possibilities and serve to encourage and stimulate the local agent; they should be made regularly.

The great bulk of the sales of wearing apparel of all kinds in Peru are made through local agents to the retail trade or through jobbers. Several commission houses founded a generation or more ago, with headquarters in Lima and branches throughout the country, engage in both export and import trade on a large scale. Similar houses are to be found at Arequipa, where several of the Lima firms also maintain offices. A well-known American firm of this character has headquarters in Lima and branch offices in every important trade center of Peru. Its textile department is equipped to handle all lines of wearing apparel and has a force of salesmen who cover the country effectively. This firm buys for stock, in addition to doing a regular commission business, and enjoys a well-earned popularity in all parts of Peru. It is interested in important industrial enterprises in Peru, in addition to its mercantile business. Among these enterprises are important cotton mills, the output of which competes with certain lower-grade goods exported from the United States.

An American bank in Lima is willing to accept agencies for Peru. This bank, in addition to the usual functions of a foreign branch of an American mercantile bank, conducts an important mercantile branch, and has offices at Lima, Callao, Cerro de Pasco, Chiclayo, and Arequipa. It has a selling force which is growing and with which it plans to cover the wholesale field in Peru.

Mention has been made of the three Paris agencies that are established in Lima—the Galeries de Lafayette, the Magasins du Louvre, and the Au Printemps de Paris. These agencies carry a very diversified line of samples covering the entire field of French trade. Their wearing-apparel sections are important because of the complete assortment represented by their samples and because of the volume of their sales. They are not willing to accept agencies but place all their orders with their respective mother houses in Paris.

Several of the important dressmaking establishments are at the same time importers of ready-made garments. Since these establishments frequently limit their imports to samples, which they copy for their clients, it is not believed that their patronage is worth much to the American manufacturer of ready-made clothing. In certain lines, such as corsets, garters, and hosiery, some of these houses are not manufacturers, and as their trade is considerable they should be visited by commercial travelers but as a rule should not be encouraged to buy suits and gowns unless they are willing to obligate themselves not to reproduce the gowns or imitate them in their shops.

As has been shown in the preceding pages, the market for wearing apparel in Peru is not yet developed. In certain lines of trade,

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especially in such articles as corsets, hosiery, men's underwear, and neckwear and notions, shirts and collars, etc., the demand for imported goods is already strong and is growing. The market for ready-made suits for men or women, for gowns, etc., remains to be developed. The methods that have been found most successful in a new territory elsewhere are those best suited to Peru.

CORRESPONDENCE AND CATALOGUES.

The belief that a foreign market can be won through correspondence alone is not shared by the exporters or manufacturers who have achieved the most notable success. Abnormal conditions during the last two or three years, resulting from the interruption of the usual channels through which the foreign trade of Peru largely flowed, have given certain well-known advantages to the American exporter. Lima merchants during the first year of the war saw their stocks of goods rapidly diminish and they did not know from what source a new stock was to be forthcoming. The all-absorbing problem of the Lima merchant was to get goods; there was little or no competition among sellers, prices were not discussed, the ability to deliver goods meant ability to sell them to the Peruvian importer. At such times as these the circular announcing a new source from which to obtain goods, a catalogue from a manufacturer hitherto unknown, in short everything that promised relief from the famine for goods was seized upon.

Jobbers lucky enough to have stocks of imported goods were not eager to dispose of them, for they did not know from what source they were to be replenished. Local prices went up until they were prohibitive. More than once during the last year I have heard jobbers in Lima congratulate themselves on the fact that they had refused to sell their stocks a year or two ago, for by holding their goods during the rise in prices their profits had been even greater than they could have realized on the infrequent and uncertain turnover that was possible during these disturbed months.

Under these conditions the small importer may be appealed to with success by a well-worded circular or an attractive catalogue. A considerable volume of business has, no doubt, come to the United States during these years of disturbance that is directly traceable to circulars and catalogues properly distributed. It should not be concluded, however, that in normal times satisfactory and lasting results can be obtained in this manner. The American manufacturer of corsets, of garters, of shirts and collars, etc., has been much assisted in Peru by the distribution of circulars, fashion plates, catalogues, and other advertising matter. But he has not depended upon this means alone to win the market for his goods. He has followed up his circulars, or more frequently has anticipated them, by sending to this field one of his most expert salesmen. This advance agent has made a careful survey of the field and estimated its capabilities and its limitations. He has designed the circulars and catalogues and advertisements that have been made use of, he has prepared the mailing lists, and perhaps he has selected a local agent to supervise their distribution. In this manner the success of the campaign through correspondence has been assured. This campaign has been nothing

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more than auxiliary; the exporter has not depended upon it alone to win success.

While most of the important jobbing and commission houses in Lima are able to conduct their foreign correspondence in English if required to do so, circulars and advertising matter intended for the general public or for the retailers in Peru must be in good Spanish. In communications in Spanish from American exporters two main defects have been observed. One type of letter is in correct Spanish but reveals lacks of intelligence or judgment and the other is satisfactory in content but written in poor Spanish. If a choice has to be made between the two, the letter adequate in content should be preferred, for the foreign correspondent has a right to demand a letter properly composed but may overlook the fact that a firm has been unable to find a competent translator. But the choice should not be necessary in many cases. If manufacturers or exporters find their business with Spanish-speaking countries too small to warrant the regular employment of competent translators, they can obtain the services of translators as they are needed through chambers of commerce and other associations. In the absence of personal contact with the customers, the letters sent deserve special care, since an opportunity may never present itself to correct a wrong first impression. An exporter should be fully satisfied that the letter, as written in English, covers clearly all the points and is neither too long and bombastic nor too short and dry. The directness of American business practices are not generally liked in Peru, and at first, at least, correspondence with Peruvians should avoid too much directness. It is the business of the translator to give to the letter the tone and character best suited to Peru.

The advisability of making use of illustrated catalogues in introducing wearing apparel into Peru is open to question. An important proportion of the wearing apparel, especially of the suits, gowns, cloaks, etc., is made by local tailors and modistes, who seize eagerly upon fashion plates, illustrated catalogues, and similar sources for suggestions and ideas. In several instances known to the writer a catalogue has been the occasion for an order for samples, from which more or less perfect reproductions were made, the imported sample serving only to give prestige to the Peruvian tailor and the illustrated catalogue assisting his clients in making their selections. In general, illustrated catalogues of manufactured goods that are readily reproduced and imitated in the foreign field should be distributed, if at all, only with the greatest caution and preferably only to dealers who are not also manufacturers.

Illustrated catalogues of such articles as corsets, neckwear, suspenders, and notions that can not economically be manufactured outside of the factory, serve a useful purpose. Indeed, it is generally admitted, in both Peru and Bolivia, that the American corset owes much of its popularity to the well-illustrated catalogues and folders that have been distributed generously by the manufacturers.

If catalogues are to be used, they must be in good Spanish to be useful in Peru, and the best catalogues, except for articles that can be imitated readily, are abundantly and artistically illustrated. Catalogues containing a large proportion of text do not attract the same amount of attention as those that are well illus-

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trated. The pictures should clearly indicate the superior features of the articles. The text should be brief, to the point, and catchy in its phraseology. The translation of a catalogue should not merely convey the literal meaning of the English. The work must be done by one who understands the psychology of the people for whom the catalogue is intended. English catch phrases may be admirably adapted to the mental attitude of the American customer, and when rendered literally into Spanish they may be pure nonsense. The phraseology of the catalogue must be such as to arrest the attention and command the interest of the foreign customer. It must, therefore, be written by one familiar with the tastes and even the peculiar whims and fancies of the public for which the catalogue is intended.

In Peru there are no classified directories. Lists of prospective customers are not to be had with the same facility as in some other countries. Unless the exporter has a list that has been carefully prepared he may go to much useless expense in distributing his literature to persons who will never read it. In a fireside journal that made a feature of practical hints submitted by its readers, I once saw a "hint" entitled "Use for Catalogues." The author of this hint explained that she had for years been troubled with the large number of catalogues that she received. At last her cook discovered that the pages of these catalogues made excellent mats upon which to set the pans and pots in the kitchen. I have seen Indian huts in the Peruvian sierra that were papered inside and out with beautiful prints and illustrated circulars; and the occupants of such huts never buy an imported manufactured article.

Exporters' associations, credit agencies, and some banks make a special effort to supply for their members carefully compiled lists of dealers and customers in the foreign field. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce has such lists on file. Before mailing literature to Peru, exporters should make sure that their mailing list is the best available.

EXPORT COMMISSION HOUSES AND MANUFACTURER'S AGENTS.

Several important American commission houses have resident representatives in Lima, who cover the country more or less thoroughly. Still other American commission houses send their own salesmen to Peru with samples to solicit orders. The number of American commission houses who are interesting themselves in this field is increasing. Some of the recently established houses of this character seem to have taken advantage of present abnormal conditions to enter a field for which they are ill equipped and which they will for the most part have to abandon when competitive conditions are reestablished. Goods that have been introduced by such houses can scarcely hope to retain their position permanently. This does not mean that none of the new commission houses is worthy of the full confidence of the manufacturer. The success of several is evidence that there is still room for new firms with sufficient capital and experience.

Perhaps the most efficient type of export commission house for the handling of American manufactures in the foreign field is the house that is owned and controlled by a group of closely allied manufacturing interests. Probably a group of manufacturers producing in

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the aggregate a full and complete assortment of wearing apparel, if properly organized through a jointly owned commission house, would find it economical and satisfactory to market their own goods, establishing for this purpose branch offices and sample rooms or even carrying stocks, in the most convenient points of distribution or in the larger consuming centers. The Paris agencies referred to earlier in this report resemble such an organization in their methods and they seem to have demonstrated that they are admirably adapted to market conditions in Peru.

Many Peruvian dealers apparently prefer to make purchases either from stock or direct from the manufacturer. The very success of the commission houses has tended to discredit them with some of the Peruvians, who reason that the profits of these commission merchants have been paid by themselves, for services that they consider of doubtful value. The jobber, selling from his own stock, finds no difficulty in winning the confidence of his customer, who sees the goods he is buying and has an opportunity to test their excellence. The commission merchant selling from samples is not always able to guarantee that he will be able to fill orders with goods exactly like the sample. It frequently happens that goods more or less unlike the sample must be sent and sometimes substitutions are made that have not been authorized. No matter how good the article substituted may be, the fact that the change was made weakens the confidence of the foreign buyer. The manufacturer's agent, it is commonly believed, is more likely to fill orders according to samples.

Most manufacturer's agents who visit Peru have too limited a number of lines. Their trip involves great expense, their small assortment makes it difficult or impossible for them to obtain a large volume of business, and they are apt to be unsuccessful financially. The manufacturer's agent who visits Peru must never lose sight of the fact that the market is small, that travel is expensive, and that relatively a great deal of time will be unemployed in actually selling goods. Therefore, if his trip is to be profitable he must carry a great variety of goods. While his sales from any single line may not be considerable, his orders in the aggregate will give satisfactory profits.

It should be recognized, however, that the commission house renders a service of great value both to the manufacturer and to the foreign buyer. The efficient commission house makes it possible for the foreign buyer to assemble into a single shipment a multitude of purchases, thus economizing in shipping charges and customs difficulties. Moreover, the familiarity of the commission house with market conditions in the market of supply enables it to select merchandise to the best advantage.

The service rendered by the commission house, in addition to that of seeking business, is in connection with foreign freight contracts, insurance against loss by bad credit, financing of long-time credits, etc. The commission house or agency, which limits its functions to those of a purely commercial character, has many advantages over the manufacturer, whose commercial activities are necessarily subordinate. The commission house that enjoys a trade of considerable volume in a given territory can command better freight rates, can effect economies in charges for transshipment, storage, etc., and being in immediate contact with the large banks interested in foreign trade, can obtain better interest and discount rates because of the

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confidence that it is able to inspire. Probably the average manufacturer, the volume of whose trade in a market like that of Peru is small in comparison with the expense incurred in making sales, will find it profitable to work through a strong commission house.

It should be borne in mind, however, that the commission house naturally favors the goods that sell most easily, and the selling quality of a given product does not depend wholly upon intrinsic worth. Two equally valuable products will have different selling qualities, and this difference is not infrequently dependent upon the direct effort that the manufacturer may make in creating a demand for his output, through periodical visits to the market and resulting personal contact with the foreign buyer, through judicious advertising, etc. While the manufacturer may, therefore, be able to depend upon his commission house to superintend the foreign marketing of his goods, he should not depend upon it wholly for the cultivation of the foreign market.

The abnormal conditions that have prevailed during the years of the war have resulted in an almost universal demand for sales on the basis of cash against documents in the port of embarkation. This condition has relieved the commission houses to a great extent of one of their most important functions, namely, that of acting as arbiters in the granting of credits and of financing business done on a credit basis. When trade is on a cash basis the commission house needs far less capital and but little credit. Taking advantage of this condition, an infinity of more or less deserving commission firms have incorporated for foreign trade. Not a few of these will be too weak financially when trade returns to a credit basis to continue their activities, and manufacturers who have intrusted such houses with their trade will suffer in consequence. The selection of a commission agent for his foreign trade should be made with much care by the manufacturer, for upon the wisdom of this selection will depend much of his success.

Certain lines of exports can be handled most efficiently by the commission man and other lines can best be handled by the manufacturer's agent. Machinery, industrial plants, and commodities demanded in considerable quantities, the successful marketing of which requires special technical skill or experience on the part of the salesman, are best handled by agents in direct contact with manufacturer and under his immediate control. Wearing apparel, however, requires the intervention of some central agency to assemble the diversified articles and by combining many relatively unimportant orders into a single export shipment, assist the foreign buyer and make possible a great saving in the freight and other charges that make up the cost of exportation.

AGENCIES ESTABLISHED IN PERU.

During recent years a large number of agency firms has been formed in Peru. Most of them are composed of young men, former employees of the strong importing houses of Lima, who have taken advantage of the disturbed conditions occasioned by the war to establish themselves. Most of these young men are well acquainted with market conditions and trade practices in Peru. Not a few of the new firms, however, have been launched without sufficient prep-

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aration, others have insufficient working capital, and when conditions return to normal some of them will certainly not survive competition. There are in Lima and Arequipa, however, firms which do an exclusive agency business. Several of these employ as many as 10 or more salesmen and cover the most inaccessible interior districts effectively. Some agency firms are apt to undertake work for which they may be but indifferently equipped. I have known such firms to have a long list of exclusive agencies for goods that should find a ready market in Peru but that remained all but unknown because the local agent was incapable of giving them the necessary attention.

Before awarding an exclusive agency the manufacturer or exporter should make for himself a thorough study of the territory, selecting his representative only after he has personally or through some trusted employee or official of his company examined the individual or firm chosen and assured himself that no better representative is available. After having awarded the agency, the manufacturer or exporter will find it to his advantage to visit the territory periodically and keep in the closest possible touch with his agent through frequent correspondence.

The success of the agency firms already established in Peru seems to indicate that this is a field in which an efficient, well-organized company, officered by trained American salesmen, employing Peruvian salesmen and assistants, and having exclusive agency contracts with a sufficiently varied group of textile and clothing manufacturers, would meet with considerable success from the first. The personnel of such a company need not be large. It would probably not be necessary to have more than one or two trained Americans as managers. An American sewing-machine company maintains an office in Lima that covers the field most effectively. The office of this company is under the management of an expert salesman and credit man. It has numerous employees, most of whom have been developed out of local talent.

For the present and until the market is more developed, Peru does not present a good field in which to establish branch houses. The trade can be conducted far more economically and quite as effectively by a well-organized agency.

Peru is not an inviting field to the average manufacturer of clothing working alone. The expense involved in making sales is so great and the size of the market so limited in comparison that the opportunity to succeed for a manufacturer operating alone is not great. A group of manufacturers, however, closely organized to extend their sales to Peru through an agency owned and controlled by themselves, would doubtless find conditions favorable and, if intelligently managed, their agency would quickly develop a profitable business of satisfactory volume.

In general, the expense of distribution should be reduced to the minimum that is consistent with efficiency and safety. The exporter whose business is of considerable volume, or in certain staple lines which "sell themselves" can perhaps conduct his export trade without the intervention of the commission house at home. He will find the agent in Lima, however, very useful both in obtaining orders and in making delivery and collections. The Lima banks, except the Mercantile Bank of the Americas, will not make collections for the foreign manufacturer. The exporter whose business is of relatively

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small volume will find it best to work in cooperation with other exporters of noncompeting products. Combinations for export trade will perhaps come to fulfill the functions of the commission house. They will not, however, do away with these functions nor with much of the expense; they will simply provide for performing these functions an agency that is more directly controlled by the manufacturer.

COMMERCIAL TRAVELERS.

The laws and regulations governing commercial travelers in Peru are generally more liberal than in most South American countries. Representatives of American business concerns who come to Peru with samples for display or sale of their goods should procure from each American firm they represent a power of attorney. This is not required by law, but it is advisable. It would also facilitate matters if they provided themselves with letters from the chambers of commerce in the cities where the firms are located. Chambers of commerce are important institutions in the larger cities of South America. It is not necessary that a photograph of the traveler be attached to such papers of identification.

The commercial traveler on arrival at a Peruvian port is not required to take out any Government license or documents, nor is he required to pay a national tax for soliciting trade, but in some interior towns a municipal tax is imposed. For instance, in Arequipa a commercial traveler is required to pay a tax of 25 soles (about $12) quarterly, and in Cuzco a tax of 50 soles (about $24), presumably for each visit.

No formalities are required, with the exception of the customs, before the commercial traveler is permitted to transact business. The clientele of the commercial traveler is not limited by law, and consequently he is not required to confine his dealings to registered firms or recognized dealers in merchandise for which he is taking orders.

The best season of the year for commercial travelers to visit Peru would be in September for the summer trade and April for the winter, bearing in mind, of course, that the seasons here are the reverse of those in the United States. The railroads give no special baggage rates to commercial travelers. It is difficult to make a correct estimate of the daily expenses of a commercial traveler in Peru, as they depend largely on the amount of territory he covers and the quantity of samples carried. Railway and steamship transportation on this coast is expensive.

A few years ago the salesman who visited South America as the representative of American exporters was frequently a young man in search of adventure. His one aim was to get orders. Never expecting to return, he was not overscrupulous and cared little whether or not his customers were well served, provided he got the orders and was able to collect his commissions. As American exporters are becoming more interested in their South American business, they are manifesting more care in the selection of agents. There is a noticeable improvement in the character and efficiency of the commercial travelers from the United States who have visited the west coast during the last few years.

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Many writers who discuss the qualifications necessary for a successful commercial traveler in South America assume that conditions in Peru and other South American countries are essentially different from conditions elsewhere, and that the commercial traveler, to succeed in these countries, must be endowed with peculiar traits and must have had special training. It is true that the business men of Peru move in a social atmosphere unlike that of the United States. But the difference between the two fields appears to have been overemphasized. The successful business man of Peru appreciates, as much as any other buyer, the straightforward salesman who knows his goods. Qualifications that are essential to success in any field are those that merit first consideration in selecting a salesman for Peru—knowledge of the goods, enthusiasm for their performance, good habits, and at least average education.

Most exporters seem to feel that a practical knowledge of Spanish is necessary for a commercial traveler in Peru. But many importers to whom the commercial traveler will make his sales are either English or American or have employees who understand English. A knowledge of Spanish is not an indispensable qualification for a commercial traveler whose sales will be made, for the most part, to the more important wholesale houses or to industrial establishments. If the traveler desires to cover the field more thoroughly, he can always obtain through his bank or through the local wholesalers the services of a local assistant who knows the language of the country and is familiar with the prospective customers to be visited. A practical knowledge of Spanish is useful, especially in making acquaintances and friendships, and every commercial traveler who intends to remain in this territory should take up seriously the study of Spanish; but there are other qualifications that are far more nearly indispensable than a knowledge of Spanish.

Not a few exporters employ young men of Spanish or Latin-American origin to represent them in this territory, believing that these will have more ready access to the trade. By adopting this course the exporter places himself on a level with his local competitors and sacrifices his superiority as a foreign manufacturer. In spite of the fact that Americans do not rapidly acquire a knowledge of Spanish, I am confident that experience will show that the American commercial traveler of the best type will get more business and make more worth-while friendships in a given time in Peru than the most efficient foreign-born agent that can be found.

It should not be the desire of the exporter to have his agent cover the interior and less important cities of Peru. Local wholesalers are far better equipped to do this effectively and economically. Besides, making direct sales to a multitude of unimportant dealers scattered throughout the country not only takes business away from the local wholesalers, but it multiplies the problems and vexations of the exporter without increasing his sales proportionately.

The commercial traveler who in the end establishes for his employer a permanent trade in the foreign field and especially in Peru, selects carefully a small number of reliable importers through whom he conducts all his business. He may not give an exclusive agency to any of these. He may not depend wholly upon any one or upon all of them to cover the field with his samples; he

may prefer to canvass the retailers himself and make his own sales. Even then, however, he will work through one or the other of the wholesalers. When the orders he has taken are filled, the goods will be assembled in a single shipment and consigned to the wholesaler for whose account the sales have been made. This wholesaler will receive a moderate commission for distributing the goods and assuming responsibility for the collections. He will look forward to the return of the salesman and upon his return will have discovered new prospects and have many suggestions of great value.

On arriving at Callao the commercial traveler may turn his baggage over to one of the uniformed baggagemen who flock to the ship in their motor boats. These baggagemen are reliable for the most part and the stranger may proceed to Lima in confidence that his baggage will be safely delivered to the address he has given. He will probably engage a customs dispatch agent to put his baggage through the customs, and he must not blame the customs agent for more than a just share of his troubles with the complicated customs regulations. These regulations provide for the payment of all charges on dutiable samples imported and the refund of the duty when the samples are exported. It is sometimes not understood why the refund is always smaller than the amount paid upon the entry of the goods. The entrance charges include special taxes, port fees, etc., as well as duty, whereas the refund is the amount of the duty only.

On arriving at Lima the commercial traveler will find it to his advantage to call on the American minister, the commercial attaché, and the consul, who will be able to supplement his list of persons to be visited and to assist him in other ways. The banks also will assist him in making any preliminary arrangements.

It will require two weeks to cover Lima and the surrounding territory. At the end of this time the commercial traveler has perhaps selected a representative from among the local agency or commission firms; he may have given an exclusive sale to some jobber; or he may have canvassed the field himself and taken orders to be filled direct by the factory.

If he has taken orders he will find it advisable to turn these over to some local agency or commission man who will look after the delivery of the goods upon their arrival; or he may prefer to send the orders in to his factory and let them find a suitable forwarding agent at the port from which the goods are to be shipped. Deliveries made direct from the factory to the foreign buyer otherwise than by parcel post or express will pay higher freight rates than those made through a forwarding agent who is able to secure advantageous contracts from the steamship companies. Of course this remark would not apply to large shipments.

CUSTOMS AND CONSULAR REGULATIONS.

Samples of any kind, not prohibited by the customs laws, may be imported duty free for a limited time under certain conditions. This privilege is granted for three months, but it may be extended for another three months upon application to the customs authorities. Only one article of each kind may be imported, unless there is a difference in quality, shape, size, weight, or color. As a guaranty that the

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samples will not be sold or changed in any way, the customs authorities require the traveling salesman to put up a deposit equivalent to the duty on the samples. This deposit is refunded upon reexportation of the samples and payment of such storage and other charges as may have been incurred at the customs. If proof of the reexportation of the samples within the period determined upon is not submitted, the amount deposited will not be refunded. For the reexportation of all or part of the samples, the commercial traveler should present the articles in ample time at the customhouse, in order that the contents of the packages may be checked. If the examination discloses that any of the articles are missing or have been reduced in weight or have been replaced by others, double duty is collected on such articles, and the articles substituted are confiscated. It is a general custom of the commercial travelers on visiting Peru to place their trunks of samples in the hands of a customs broker, who furnishes a personal bond for the customs duty on the samples. He also attends to the inspection of the samples by the customs officials, upon both entry and departure from the country. If the traveler disposes of a part of his samples and advises the customs authorities to that effect, he pays duty only on the amount disposed of. To facilitate matters, reexportation should be made through the port of importation. The clearance of trunks containing samples through the customs at Callao is not so rapid as the average American traveler demands, requiring from one day to a week for the clearance. Samples without commercial value are generally admitted free of duty. This, however, is discretionary with the appraiser.

A limited amount of advertising matter, such as printed circulars, cards, catalogues, etc., carried by travelers for complimentary distribution, is admitted free of duty.

A declaration of the value of goods imported into or exported from Peru must accompany applications for clearance, according to the provisions of a decree of January 17, 1917, the object of this requirement being to obtain data for accurate statistics and to facilitate the settlement of claims. While this requirement affects directly only the exporter or importer in Peru, it is important that exporters in the United States furnish accurate information as to the value of goods shipped in order that consignees may not incur heavy fines because of ignorance as to the real value of the shipments.

Shippers to Peruvian ports are required to present for consular certification an invoice in quadruplicate, made out in Spanish and containing the following data: (1) The names of the shipper, port of shipment, port of destination, consignee, and vessel; and (2) marks, numbers, number and kind of packages, contents, and gross weight or measurement of each package. Invoices must be accompanied by bills of lading or, in the case of shipments without bills of lading, by receipts from the ship company. Shipments may be consigned direct or "to order." No alterations or erasures are allowed in invoices, but corrections may be made by means of letters, which must be presented in quadruplicate for consular certification. In the case of shipments for Peru that are to be transshipped in one or more foreign ports, the fact should be indicated in the invoice, and a special manifest should be presented to the consul, in which must be indicated the place of transshipment and, if possible, the name of the

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vessel to which the shipment is to be transferred. Packages may be marked with a stencil or brush and should show the gross weight. Callao and Mollendo are the only ports where explosives, firearms, etc., may be imported without special permit. Shipments of plants, seeds, and animals must be accompanied by health certificates, certified by the consul.

The consular blanks cost $0.25 per set of four; certification of a set of consular invoices costs 2 per cent of the invoice value; and an extra copy of the invoice costs $1. There is no charge for certification of the bill of lading.

PACKING GOODS FOR PERU.

In discussing import statistics attention has been invited to the fact that in Peru import duties are most frequently collected on the weight and not on the value of the imports. On clothing the basis of the import duty is usually the legal weight. By legal weight is meant the weight of the articles, plus that of the immediate wrappings but not including that of the outer case in which the article is packed. Neckties in individual cardboard boxes pay duty on their own weight plus that of the cardboard box, etc. Evidently then the clothing exported to Peru should be as lightly packed as possible. Fancy cardboard containers, etc., must not be used, especially in connection with the lower-priced goods. Italian manufacturers of neckwear owe much of their success in this field to the fact that they export their product in bulk without containers or wrappers of any kind. Moreover, the cheap Italian ties are unlined and without padding, and their weight is reduced to a minimum.

The ports of the west coast of South America have a bad reputation for pilfering, and every means should be taken by the manufacturer to protect himself against this practice. Outside cases should be strong enough to withstand rough handling and provided with seals designed to facilitate the detection of thieving. In general, dealers seem to be of the opinion that goods shipped in larger cases suffer less from pilfering than those shipped in small cases, for the twofold reason that the thief will not expect to find valuable small articles in a bulky case and that such a case can less readily be hidden away in the hold or aboard the lighter while it is being opened and the goods removed. For this reason merchants sometimes request that their goods, when packed in small cases, be recrated in a larger box.

The exporter who is making his first shipment to a client should obtain full packing instructions from the client and comply with them most scrupulously. Except unauthorized substitutions, improper packing is probably the most fruitful source of complaints. It is not possible to make general rules applicable at all times and to all shipments. Individual importers frequently have reasons of their own for desiring goods packed in some special manner.

CREDIT USAGES AND CREDIT INFORMATION.

The merchant of Peru provides no exception to the general South American demand for long credit and easy terms of payment. Conditions in Peru are perhaps superior to those found in certain other South American Republics, because of the fact that in Peru the cur-

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rency is maintained on a gold basis and in normal times violent fluctuations of exchange are less common here than elsewhere.

War conditions at present and the varying trade balance even in normal times result, however, in some fluctuation of the discount rate on foreign bills, and even in Peru the importer is tempted to require liberal credit on this account. Being far removed from the market in which he must make his purchases, the Peruvian importer would require for a cash trade a capital much greater than a cash trade of like volume would necessitate in a market more favorably located. Not a few of the importers in Peru are foreigners whose capital is limited, and even among the native importers who have been long established are some whose capital is small when compared with the volume of their trade.

The local banks are for the most part engaged in a general loan and discount business. The favorite method of financing imports is through advances in current account. Interest in Peru is high as compared with the interest charged in the United States and other industrial countries. Eight per cent and even more on loans to solvent firms of undoubted integrity is considered a fair rate of interest on the short-term loans required for financing imports. Merchants who are obliged to pay these high rates for facilities at home are naturally inclined to take advantage, whenever possible, of the lower rates prevailing in foreign countries, and the American exporter who finds it possible to finance his foreign trade with loans obtained at 6 per cent or less will render his Peruvian client a real service by allowing him to take advantage of this low rate through the extension of reasonable credit.

Business failures in Peru are rare. The Peruvian merchant is, as a rule, a man of sound moral principle. The foreign firms in Peru, for the most part, are old-established houses able to give every security to their creditors. The American exporter who conducts his business through a firm or agent in good standing in Peru need have little fear on the score of collections. The exporter, however, who undertakes to deal directly with retailers in Lima and other Peruvian cities may not feel so secure. It is in connection with this matter of credits that the services of the local agent or commission house are most valuable. These local firms are able, through their native salesmen, to keep posted on the shifting circumstances of their clients.

Several of the strongest banks in New York and other American cities are making a special effort to obtain for their clients the best available information on merchants and trade conditions in Peru. Because of their superior knowledge of men and conditions, these banks are able to finance with considerable safety any reasonable trade, and exporters will do well to avail themselves of the services of such banks in connection with their sales to Peru.

For his own protection the exporter should require full credit information with every new order. Commercial travelers and local agents will not always find it easy to obtain annual balances and similar data upon which to base a judgment of the financial standing of a client. In the absence of more exact data the salesman will often have to depend upon his own judgment based on personal inspection; and in most instances he will find this sufficient. The banks in Lima are always willing to give credit information to a

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responsible salesman at the request of their American correspondents or of their Peruvian clients. It is always well to obtain reports from several independent sources and to compare them with the information resulting from a personal inspection. In this manner an intelligent salesman should find it possible to arrive at a just appreciation of the solvency of his client.

In extending credit to any but old-established firms, the exporter must remember that six months or more may pass between the date of the sale and that of the payment. A new firm or one in an unstable condition may suffer reverses in the meantime and be unable to meet its obligations. Several instances have occurred in Lima where what seemed to be perfectly reliable firms at the time an order was taken for foreign goods, had suffered from trade difficulties and were unable to meet their obligations when the goods arrived. Here again the service of a local agent is invaluable. Goods that remain unclaimed in a foreign customhouse quickly deteriorate, and their value is eaten into by storage and other charges. The local agent is always in a position to discharge such merchandise and usually finds means to dispose of it without serious loss to the foreign exporter.

The Peruvian merchant before the war was accustomed to make his purchases at 90 days or even a longer term, and the 90-day term did not mean that the foreign exporter would have his money 90 days after he shipped the merchandise. It meant that upon receipt of the merchandise the Peruvian importer drew a 90-day draft in payment. Frequently the time consumed in making a collection on goods sold on a 90-day credit was as much as 150 days, at the end of which time the Peruvian importer expected the privilege of renewing the credit period if he so desired. As already mentioned, it frequently was and is to the advantage of the Peruvian importer to pay interest for accommodation rather than resort to a loan from his own banker at the high rates of interest prevailing in Peru. The American exporter will therefore find it necessary to arrange through his own bank for the financing to a great extent of his exports to Peru or be prepared to wait many months for his money. As American banks become more familiar with Peruvian conditions and realize the profitable character of the business offered in connection with foreign trade, facilities along these lines will be more easily obtained.

The best importing firms in Peru are known to such agencies as Bradstreet's and Dun's and to the banks engaged in Peruvian business. Exporters will always be able to obtain from these institutions a statement of the reliability of their new clients. It will be best, however, for the exporter to require from his own salesman a full and carefully prepared credit report with each order for goods from a new customer.

[Lists of manufacturers of shirts and wholesale and retail importers and dealers of Peru who are interested in wearing apparel may be obtained from the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce or its district or cooperative offices. Refer to file No. 20084.]

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 75

STATISTICS OF GERMAN TRADE
1909 TO 1913

[REPRINTED FROM MISCELLANEOUS SERIES NOS. 57 AND 65]

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, October 9, 1918.

SIR: There are submitted herewith statistics of the foreign trade of Germany between 1909 and 1913, together with some general statistics relating to German trade and industry. These statistics were published originally as appendixes to Miscellaneous Series Nos. 57 and 65 (German Foreign Trade Organization, and German Trade and the War, by C. D. Snow, Assistant Chief of Bureau, assisted by J. J. Kral), but it has been deemed advisable to print them in a separate publication on account of the widespread demand for statistical data on Germany's foreign-trade development. These statistics show the lines that are open to development by American exporters and give an answer to the question so frequently asked as to the classes of merchandise that can be marketed in foreign countries. The statistics are necessarily, in many cases, condensed into groups of related commodities, as limitations of space make it impracticable to give detailed statistics for the various articles included in each group. The German foreign-trade reports are on file, however, and the Bureau will be glad to give assistance to any American merchant who desires more detailed information. The statistics were prepared by J. J. Kral, of the research division of the Bureau, who has under way a similar compilation on Austrian trade.

Respectfully,

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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STATISTICS OF GERMAN TRADE.

TOTAL FOREIGN TRADE.

TOTAL FOREIGN TRADE OF GERMANY, BY COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN AND DESTINATION, 1912 AND 1913.

Countries.	1912			1913		
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
United Kingdom	$200,520,000	$276,332,000	$476,852,000	$208,454,000	$342,298,000	$550,752,000
Austria-Hungary	197,531,000	246,409,000	443,940,000	196,935,000	262,950,000	459,885,000
Russia	363,628,000	161,799,000	525,427,000	339,055,000	209,488,000	548,543,000
France	131,432,000	164,083,000	295,515,000	138,808,000	187,998,000	326,806,000
United States	377,464,000	166,026,000	543,490,000	407,246,000	169,739,000	576,985,000
Netherlands	82,195,000	144,825,000	227,020,000	79,260,000	165,088,000	244,348,000
Belgium	92,021,000	117,402,000	209,423,000	81,975,000	131,137,000	213,112,000
Switzerland	48,963,000	123,869,000	172,832,000	50,767,000	127,586,000	178,353,000
Italy	72,498,000	95,477,000	167,975,000	75,613,000	93,653,000	169,266,000
Denmark	48,120,000	60,498,000	108,618,000	45,657,000	67,565,000	113,222,000
Argentina	105,880,000	56,980,000	162,860,000	117,710,000	63,289,000	180,999,000
Sweden	50,929,000	46,985,000	97,914,000	53,350,000	54,693,000	108,043,000
Brazil	74,537,000	45,894,000	120,431,000	59,008,000	47,546,000	106,554,000
Norway	15,215,000	34,442,000	49,657,000	19,510,000	38,493,000	58,003,000
British India	126,911,000	25,585,000	152,496,000	128,936,000	35,876,000	164,812,000
Spain	45,176,000	26,881,000	72,057,000	47,293,000	34,040,000	81,333,000
Roumania	32,886,000	31,345,000	64,231,000	18,971,000	33,328,000	52,299,000
China	27,498,000	19,446,000	46,944,000	31,052,000	29,259,000	60,311,000
Japan	10,266,000	26,313,000	36,579,000	11,098,000	29,194,000	40,292,000
Dutch East Indies	51,149,000	17,743,000	68,892,000	54,175,000	23,479,000	77,654,000
Turkey	18,480,000	26,855,000	45,335,000	17,604,000	23,423,000	41,027,000
Chile	49,897,000	26,657,000	76,554,000	47,561,000	23,294,000	70,855,000
Finland	8,775,000	19,851,000	28,626,000	10,763,000	23,205,000	33,968,000
Australia	65,858,000	20,844,000	86,702,000	70,468,000	21,074,000	91,542,000
Canada	13,835,000	12,912,000	26,747,000	15,293,000	14,408,000	29,701,000
Portugal	5,879,000	10,045,000	15,924,000	6,010,000	12,389,000	18,399,000
Mexico	8,459,000	10,774,000	19,233,000	5,958,000	11,422,000	17,380,000
British South Africa	15,995,000	10,597,000	26,592,000	16,570,000	11,172,000	27,742,000
Egypt	26,577,000	9,053,000	35,630,000	28,176,000	10,318,000	38,494,000
Uruguay	11,972,000	9,161,000	21,133,000	10,294,000	8,531,000	18,825,000
Cuba	2,737,000	6,833,000	9,570,000	3,151,000	8,104,000	11,255,000
Bulgaria	4,274,000	6,803,000	11,077,000	2,088,000	7,219,000	9,307,000
Greece	5,963,000	4,497,000	10,460,000	6,184,000	5,794,000	11,978,000
German Southwest Africa	1,338,000	3,651,000	4,989,000	1,802,000	4,984,000	6,786,000
Serbia	4,695,000	4,404,000	9,099,000	2,508,000	4,619,000	7,127,000
Colombia	3,122,000	3,509,000	6,631,000	3,796,000	4,289,000	8,085,000
Peru	3,212,000	3,715,000	6,927,000	3,373,000	4,092,000	7,465,000
British West Africa	28,221,000	3,610,000	31,831,000	32,010,000	3,979,000	35,989,000
German East Africa	3,485,000	4,149,000	7,634,000	3,466,000	3,923,000	7,389,000
British Malacca	5,652,000	3,182,000	8,834,000	5,792,000	3,508,000	9,300,000
Morocco	4,538,000	1,887,000	6,425,000	2,315,000	3,142,000	5,457,000
Kameroon	4,275,000	2,715,000	6,990,000	2,110,000	2,853,000	5,963,000
Bolivia	9,121,000	2,928,000	12,049,000	9,692,000	2,851,000	12,543,000
New Zealand	2,112,000	2,118,000	4,230,000	2,397,000	2,543,000	4,940,000
Philippines	2,245,000	2,203,000	4,448,000	2,605,000	2,354,000	4,959,000
Venezuela	4,736,000	2,450,000	7,186,000	4,913,000	2,216,000	7,129,000
Siam	1,666,000	1,527,000	3,193,000	3,347,000	2,022,000	5,369,000
Portuguese East Africa	777,000	1,813,000	2,590,000	616,000	1,987,000	2,603,000
Algeria	7,506,000	1,272,000	8,778,000	8,238,000	1,468,000	9,706,000
Portuguese West Africa	4,568,000	1,147,000	5,715,000	4,304,000	1,307,000	5,611,000
British East Africa	1,737,000	728,000	2,465,000	1,804,000	1,216,000	3,020,000
Ceylon	9,450,000	1,018,000	10,468,000	9,979,000	1,196,000	11,175,000
Dominican Republic	2,018,000	1,216,000	3,234,000	2,417,000	1,175,000	3,592,000
Ecuador	3,763,000	1,466,000	5,229,000	4,059,000	1,147,000	5,206,000
Guatemala	7,527,000	991,000	8,518,000	8,298,000	1,115,000	9,413,000
Persia	3,720,000	849,000	4,569,000	1,829,000	1,096,000	2,925,000
All other countries	31,632,000	15,944,000	47,576,000	35,691,000	17,177,000	52,868,000
Total	2,544,636,000	2,131,718,000	4,676,354,000	2,563,354,000	2,403,311,000	4,966,665,000

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IMPORT TRADE.

TOTAL IMPORT TRADE OF GERMANY, BY COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN, 1909 TO 1913.

Countries.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
United States	$300,490,000	$282,652,000	$319,726,000	$377,464,000	$487,268,000
Russia	324,613,000	330,012,000	288,951,000	363,628,000	330,055,000
United Kingdom	172,133,000	182,444,000	192,497,000	200,543,000	288,454,000
Austria-Hungary	179,607,000	180,686,000	175,903,000	197,531,000	196,285,000
France	115,456,000	121,090,000	124,811,000	131,432,000	138,896,000
British India	75,435,000	98,162,000	104,790,000	126,911,000	128,928,000
Argentina	104,172,000	85,022,000	88,040,000	105,880,000	117,720,000
Belgium	68,918,000	77,489,000	80,942,000	92,021,000	81,975,000
Netherlands	60,312,000	61,515,000	70,862,000	82,195,000	79,260,000
Italy	68,509,000	65,340,000	67,779,000	72,498,000	75,599,000
Australia	55,477,000	62,750,000	59,092,000	65,858,000	70,488,000
Brazil	55,761,000	66,385,000	76,161,000	74,537,000	59,008,000
Dutch East Indies	44,006,000	44,628,000	43,881,000	51,149,000	54,175,000
Sweden	33,758,000	38,986,000	43,554,000	50,929,000	53,330,000
Switzerland	38,710,000	41,386,000	42,753,000	48,963,000	50,767,000
Chile	34,157,000	36,793,000	37,688,000	49,897,000	47,561,000
Spain	29,443,000	33,363,000	39,050,000	45,176,000	47,295,000
Denmark	32,202,000	37,629,000	42,899,000	48,120,000	45,657,000
British West Africa	20,797,000	25,786,000	25,424,000	28,221,000	32,040,000
China	15,515,000	22,531,000	24,506,000	27,498,000	31,062,000
Egypt	22,783,000	22,282,000	23,689,000	26,577,000	28,176,000
Norway	8,770,000	11,820,000	12,876,000	15,215,000	19,510,000
Roumania	15,361,000	16,394,000	25,643,000	32,886,000	15,971,000
Turkey	13,635,000	16,054,000	16,682,000	18,480,000	17,604,000
British South Africa	14,651,000	14,133,000	13,304,000	15,995,000	16,570,000
Canada	1,997,000	2,531,000	5,702,000	13,835,000	15,298,000
Japan	6,956,000	8,760,000	8,942,000	10,266,000	11,098,000
Finland	5,657,000	6,226,000	8,243,000	8,775,000	10,763,000
Uruguay	8,097,000	6,798,000	8,427,000	11,972,000	10,294,000
Ceylon	4,585,000	8,421,000	8,803,000	9,450,000	9,979,000
Bolivia	5,107,000	7,047,000	8,704,000	9,121,000	9,682,000
Guatemala	5,935,000	4,516,000	6,474,000	7,527,000	8,208,000
Algeria	4,840,000	4,889,000	6,153,000	7,506,000	8,238,000
Greece	4,322,000	5,060,000	5,634,000	5,963,000	6,184,000
Portugal	3,084,000	5,176,000	6,064,000	5,879,000	6,010,000
Mexico	5,119,000	5,641,000	7,384,000	8,459,000	5,958,000
Straits Settlements	6,451,000	10,864,000	6,531,000	5,652,000	5,792,000
Venezuela	3,585,000	3,771,000	3,974,000	4,736,000	4,913,000
French West Africa	2,944,000	3,396,000	3,410,000	3,765,000	4,804,000
Portuguese West Africa	3,003,000	3,645,000	4,678,000	4,568,000	4,304,000
Ecuador	2,634,000	2,543,000	2,871,000	3,763,000	4,059,000
Colombia	2,433,000	3,092,000	3,473,000	3,122,000	3,796,000
German East Africa	1,853,000	2,571,000	2,914,000	3,485,000	3,466,000
Peru	3,059,000	3,456,000	4,908,000	3,212,000	3,373,000
Siam	2,932,000	2,730,000	1,984,000	1,666,000	2,347,000
Cuba	2,467,000	2,039,000	2,311,000	2,737,000	3,151,000
Kameroon	2,644,000	5,586,000	4,016,000	4,275,000	3,110,000
Philippine Islands	885,000	920,000	1,181,000	2,245,000	2,005,000
Tunis	889,000	868,000	1,199,000	2,179,000	2,511,000
Serbia	3,662,000	4,267,000	5,893,000	4,695,000	2,508,000
Dominican Republic	1,697,000	2,003,000	1,987,000	2,018,000	2,417,000
New Zealand	504,000	1,224,000	1,691,000	2,112,000	2,397,000
Morocco	1,847,000	2,168,000	2,970,000	4,538,000	2,315,000
Madagascar	1,536,000	2,815,000	2,565,000	2,033,000	2,097,000
Bulgaria	1,999,000	1,502,000	2,520,000	4,274,000	2,068,000
Persia	635,000	657,000	2,257,000	3,720,000	1,829,000
British East Africa	1,162,000	1,636,000	1,447,000	1,737,000	1,804,000
German Southwest Africa	788,000	967,000	760,000	1,338,000	1,802,000
Togo	895,000	761,000	807,000	1,479,000	1,739,000
Paraguay	865,000	1,250,000	1,042,000	1,371,000	1,711,000
Costa Rica	880,000	896,000	1,181,000	1,213,000	1,668,000
Salvador	914,000	824,000	1,075,000	888,000	1,304,000
All other countries	15,876,000	20,464,000	18,189,000	19,458,000	20,687,000
Total	2,029,399,000	2,126,322,000	2,309,947,000	2,544,636,000	2,563,364,000

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Principal Articles in German Import Trade, in Order of Importance, 1909 to 1913.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Cotton, raw	$126,669,000	$133,495,000	$143,780,000	$137,990,000	$144,496,000
Wheat	108,637,000	89,791,000	94,932,000	94,211,000	99,319,000
Wool, raw	84,917,000	92,763,000	88,464,000	96,613,000	98,216,000
Barley	72,118,000	73,782,000	109,981,000	105,723,000	92,911,000
Copper, crude	45,183,000	51,449,000	54,989,000	74,496,000	79,794,000
Cattle and buffalo hides	40,031,000	49,173,000	49,311,000	59,696,000	76,564,000
Iron ores	30,142,000	38,390,000	42,500,000	47,854,000	54,048,000
Coffee, raw	44,683,000	42,002,000	59,873,000	60,119,000	52,259,000
Coal	39,568,000	37,545,000	42,678,000	45,455,000	48,685,000
Eggs; yolks of eggs	38,086,000	39,768,000	41,840,000	45,964,000	46,189,000
Fur skins	51,761,000	50,057,000	38,492,000	46,361,000	44,701,000
Nitrate of soda (Chile saltpeter)	28,508,000	31,771,000	32,183,000	42,563,000	40,912,000
Silk, raw, not dyed	37,546,000	35,110,000	32,452,000	34,965,000	37,603,000
Bran; rice refuse	33,280,000	27,353,000	39,286,000	49,748,000	35,566,000
India rubber, gutta-percha, and balata gum	36,599,000	64,345,000	46,324,000	43,971,000	34,929,000
Wood of conifers, sawn	25,306,000	29,318,000	32,225,000	35,987,000	32,199,000
Tobacco, leaf	31,437,000	24,770,000	27,734,000	32,277,000	31,956,000
Linseed	25,150,000	23,983,000	22,460,000	24,946,000	30,867,000
Copra	11,069,000	19,636,000	17,652,000	22,853,000	29,019,000
Lard	26,516,000	16,525,000	20,874,000	26,458,000	28,300,000
Butter	23,352,000	21,888,000	30,749,000	30,070,000	28,252,000
Oil cakes	23,403,000	22,076,000	24,835,000	27,717,000	28,217,000
Horses	20,992,000	26,041,000	25,329,000	23,831,000	27,683,000
Cotton yarn and twist	21,310,000	24,292,000	23,535,000	24,749,000	27,657,000
Woolen yarn	28,478,000	28,532,000	27,082,000	25,618,000	25,706,000
Palm nuts	16,446,000	21,041,000	21,460,000	23,640,000	24,751,000
Rice	14,087,000	19,104,000	20,983,000	24,424,000	24,728,000
Corn	20,929,000	14,649,000	20,639,000	34,086,000	24,257,000
Fruits, southern	15,560,000	18,963,000	22,468,000	22,425,000	24,076,000
Wood of conifers, rough	19,395,000	20,084,000	22,084,000	23,016,000	23,077,000
Calfskins	19,963,000	17,444,000	17,952,000	20,029,000	22,527,000
Jute, raw, and tow	12,284,000	10,070,000	14,834,000	17,785,000	22,371,000
Meats	11,994,000	11,696,000	11,131,000	22,774,000	22,310,000
Cattle	17,321,000	20,234,000	14,271,000	17,477,000	20,775,000
Machinery	15,108,000	15,305,000	16,901,000	18,341,000	19,141,000
Fruits, common, fresh	13,401,000	8,294,000	11,816,000	14,005,000	17,381,000
Sheep, lamb, goat, and kid skins	14,354,000	12,292,000	11,555,000	14,759,000	17,276,000
Cotton fabrics	12,730,000	13,482,000	12,249,000	13,827,000	17,158,000
Kerosene	14,982,000	13,095,000	11,131,000	14,981,000	16,632,000
Brown coal	18,465,000	16,726,000	16,824,000	16,429,000	16,463,000
Cocoa, raw	10,009,000	10,805,000	13,210,000	15,134,000	16,070,000
Wool, carded or combed	20,395,000	18,949,000	17,722,000	20,481,000	14,905,000
Oats	15,632,000	11,225,000	17,816,000	21,823,000	14,382,000
Fish, fresh	10,374,000	11,372,000	12,391,000	14,083,000	14,252,000
Intestines and stomachs of cattle; bladders	12,337,000	12,831,000	13,158,000	13,227,000	14,107,000
Tin, crude	8,733,000	10,418,000	13,157,000	15,435,000	13,840,000
Flax, raw, cleaned, steeped, broken	8,511,000	9,606,000	10,744,000	16,032,000	13,630,000
Poultry, live	10,646,000	12,111,000	10,913,000	13,079,000	13,319,000
Wine in casks	8,761,000	14,164,000	14,227,000	13,548,000	12,735,000
Herring, salted	7,731,000	9,451,000	9,404,000	10,501,000	12,316,000
Phosphate of lime, natural	9,473,000	8,607,000	9,916,000	10,744,000	11,062,000
Clover seed	12,495,000	12,149,000	14,871,000	13,110,000	10,941,000
Lubricating oils, mineral	7,042,000	6,904,000	8,326,000	9,827,000	10,903,000
Sesame	5,242,000	9,798,000	8,052,000	8,454,000	10,403,000
Woolen fabrics	8,317,000	8,896,000	9,860,000	11,025,000	10,336,000
Rye	9,175,000	10,113,000	18,091,000	10,447,000	10,036,000
Tin ores	4,919,000	6,357,000	9,549,000	9,852,000	10,029,000
Wood for the manufacture of pulp or cellulose	5,578,000	5,767,000	4,776,000	7,680,000	9,480,000
Cotton seed	3,512,000	4,100,000	5,949,000	8,381,000	8,874,000
Fruits, dried	5,915,000	6,334,000	7,233,000	7,373,000	8,843,000
Zinc ores	5,266,000	6,434,000	8,042,000	9,655,000	8,743,000
Lead ores	4,765,000	4,676,000	6,412,000	7,170,000	8,609,000
Benzine, raw	4,082,000	4,020,000	5,293,000	9,668,000	8,535,000
Linen yarn	5,509,000	6,495,000	7,198,000	7,343,000	8,368,000
Sheep, lamb, goat, and kid skins, dressed	6,344,000	7,567,000	7,692,000	7,381,000	7,997,000
All other articles	526,876,000	570,819,000	631,087,000	694,950,000	691,968,000
Total	2,029,399,000	2,126,322,000	2,309,947,000	2,544,636,000	2,563,354,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913.

ABYSSINIA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$256,000	$416,000	$458,000	$759,000	$1,[illegible]
Cattle hides	40,000	69,000	105,000	396,000	1,[illegible]
Beeswax	166,000	224,000	191,000	241,000	[illegible]
Vegetable ivory		100,000	70,000	43,000	[illegible]

ALGERIA.

Total imports	$4,840,000	$4,889,000	$6,153,000	$7,506,000	$8,[illegible]
Iron ores	957,000	1,016,000	1,464,000	2,029,000	2,405,000
Phosphate of lime	1,833,000	1,746,000	1,960,000	2,270,000	2,278,000
Cork	206,000	573,000	746,000	720,000	748,000
Vegetable hair	322,000	366,000	389,000	431,000	526,000
Goatskins	164,000	59,000	271,000	413,000	402,000
Sheep and lamb skins	102,000	91,000	95,000	202,000	398,000
Cork, waste and scrap	100,000	134,000	96,000	113,000	211,000
Tartar, crude	54,000	79,000	55,000	90,000	158,000
Wine, in casks	138,000	136,000	174,000	158,000	143,000
Wine yeast (lees)	49,000	42,000	127,000	96,000	92,000
Tobacco	6,000	37,000	45,000	59,000	88,000
Dates, dried	40,000	50,000	68,000	80,000	87,000

ARGENTINA.

Total imports	$104,172,000	$85,022,000	$88,040,000	$105,880,000	$117,710,000
Linseed	21,183,000	16,228,000	11,319,000	12,991,000	23,520,000
Wool, raw	21,583,000	23,471,000	21,469,000	20,863,000	21,456,000
Wheat	25,769,000	12,527,000	20,476,000	22,099,000	17,857,000
Cattle hides	9,725,000	11,734,000	13,828,000	13,552,000	16,933,000
Corn	8,148,000	5,437,000	3,467,000	13,925,000	14,722,000
Bran	4,946,000	4,294,000	4,600,000	5,941,000	5,293,000
Oats	2,138,000	637,000	2,349,000	5,042,000	4,551,000
Quebracho logs	1,824,000	3,105,000	3,141,000	2,151,000	2,298,000
Premier jus	502,000	658,000	479,000	1,115,000	1,820,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	706,000	1,119,000	1,029,000	1,420,000	1,343,000
Tallow	734,000	878,000	1,013,000	1,145,000	1,043,000
Quebracho extract	437,000	288,000	373,000	556,000	852,000
Fur skins, raw	2,223,000	995,000	353,000	429,000	703,000
Barley	150,000	66,000	15,000	268,000	421,000
Rye	23,000	9,000	29,000	105,000	401,000
Calfskins	273,000	282,000	481,000	483,000	354,000
Oil cake	222,000	361,000	343,000	254,000	328,000
Blood of slaughtered animals	154,000	120,000	136,000	197,000	243,000
Tungsten ores	111,000	174,000	259,000	242,000	231,000

AUSTRALIA.

Total imports	$55,477,000	$63,750,000	$59,082,000	$65,858,000	$70,468,000
Wool, raw	31,294,000	37,126,000	33,433,000	37,383,000	38,174,000
Lead ores	3,900,000	4,005,000	5,644,000	5,963,000	7,709,000
Copper	1,477,000	2,393,000	2,291,000	3,750,000	4,731,000
Zinc ores	2,076,000	3,684,000	4,446,000	5,304,000	4,730,000
Wheat	5,643,000	5,209,000	4,445,000	2,539,000	3,669,000
Tin	1,175,000	781,000	1,010,000	1,511,000	1,620,000
Tallow	545,000	695,000	744,000	1,075,000	1,390,000
Wool, washed	3,007,000	3,432,000	2,155,000	1,563,000	1,281,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	567,000	816,000	787,000	812,000	1,229,000
Cattle hides	215,000	124,000	298,000	656,000	1,175,000
Tin ores	14,000	3,000	2,000	286,000	539,000
Precious stones, raw	230,000	203,000	168,000	165,000	431,000
Tungsten ores	232,000	286,000	428,000	511,000	394,000
Apples, fresh	196,000	179,000	162,000	353,000	356,000
Calfskins	82,000	49,000	96,000	386,000	353,000
Lead	747,000	548,000	446,000	349,000	248,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$179,607,000	$180,686,000	$175,903,000	$197,531,000	$196,925,000
Eggs	14,759,000	15,249,000	17,462,000	19,866,000	18,200,000
Brown coal	18,464,000	16,726,000	16,824,000	16,428,000	16,463,000
Wood of conifers, rough	7,616,000	8,330,000	9,382,000	9,236,000	9,255,000
Calfskins	5,735,000	4,805,000	4,073,000	5,265,000	5,486,000
Barley	5,608,000	5,511,000	3,626,000	7,183,000	5,250,000
Oxen	6,401,000	6,863,000	2,266,000	5,320,000	4,477,000
Cattle hides	3,254,000	2,756,000	2,317,000	4,361,000	4,187,000
Wood of conifers, sawn	3,890,000	4,549,000	4,535,000	3,466,000	3,639,000
Cotton yarn	137,000	358,000	414,000	546,000	3,555,000
Linen yarn	2,087,000	2,406,000	2,654,000	2,742,000	3,229,000
Malt	3,185,000	3,172,000	2,931,000	3,020,000	3,163,000
Feathers for beds, raw	2,675,000	2,700,000	2,950,000	2,761,000	3,034,000
Kerosene	1,381,000	1,187,000	1,362,000	2,174,000	2,848,000
Coal	2,811,000	2,445,000	2,243,000	2,260,000	2,404,000
Beer, in casks	1,441,000	1,535,000	1,738,000	1,843,000	2,140,000
Paintings	2,050,000	1,839,000	1,935,000	1,860,000	1,946,000
Wood for the manufacture of pulp or cellulose	1,258,000	1,472,000	1,136,000	1,769,000	1,920,000
Fur skins, dressed	1,039,000	765,000	1,798,000	1,793,000	1,805,000
Books	1,556,000	1,722,000	1,878,000	1,781,000	1,798,000
Apples, fresh	1,532,000	1,209,000	1,339,000	890,000	1,788,000
Hops	2,860,000	1,846,000	2,291,000	3,288,000	1,774,000
Oil cake	1,482,000	1,427,000	1,970,000	1,866,000	1,695,000
Cotton waste	1,210,000	1,467,000	1,321,000	1,306,000	1,550,000
China clay	1,158,000	1,278,000	1,343,000	1,426,000	1,467,000
Sulphate of ammonia	967,000	1,147,000	1,143,000	1,169,000	1,438,000
Horses	2,049,000	2,363,000	1,642,000	1,293,000	1,373,000
Lubricating oils, mineral	564,000	681,000	836,000	1,019,000	1,334,000
Cows	1,398,000	1,690,000	162,000	760,000	1,193,000
Men's hats of felt	576,000	568,000	588,000	679,000	1,099,000
Fur skins, raw	829,000	905,000	697,000	1,027,000	1,073,000
Red clover seed	1,535,000	1,323,000	1,392,000	1,528,000	1,028,000
Mine timber	715,000	596,000	524,000	981,000	1,022,000
Cigarettes	1,394,000	1,212,000	723,000	864,000	1,008,000
Flax tow	824,000	810,000	837,000	897,000	998,000
Zinc	532,000	452,000	615,000	700,000	952,000
Geese	894,000	931,000	872,000	966,000	950,000
Chickens	1,060,000	1,076,000	915,000	923,000	926,000
Pears and quinces, fresh	1,721,000	518,000	883,000	1,216,000	914,000
Beans for food, dry	1,155,000	1,204,000	1,437,000	920,000	913,000
Flax	745,000	823,000	793,000	1,011,000	901,000
Feathers for beds, prepared	655,000	744,000	956,000	789,000	838,000
Human hair	631,000	677,000	691,000	848,000	800,000
Goat and kid skins	738,000	709,000	662,000	832,000	794,000
Hemp tow	294,000	472,000	675,000	682,000	793,000
Poultry, killed	987,000	979,000	806,000	842,000	790,000
Bran	1,903,000	2,350,000	1,863,000	1,069,000	775,000
Plums, dried	368,000	512,000	806,000	560,000	755,000
Wood alcohol	615,000	639,000	645,000	769,000	753,000
Paraffin	744,000	800,000	967,000	837,000	714,000

BELGIUM.

Total imports	$68,918,000	$77,489,000	$80,942,000	$92,021,000	$81,975,000
Wool, washed	6,220,000	6,411,000	7,516,000	8,413,000	7,589,000
Horses	6,579,000	7,862,000	6,988,000	6,610,000	7,413,000
Wool, carded or combed	4,476,000	5,392,000	3,142,000	5,403,000	4,829,000
Silk, artificial	2,948,000	3,411,000	3,453,000	4,596,000	3,181,000
Zinc	3,280,000	3,088,000	3,880,000	4,070,000	3,178,000
Linen yarn	1,733,000	2,089,000	2,483,000	2,529,000	2,976,000
Coke	2,231,000	2,373,000	2,594,000	2,551,000	2,715,000
Thomas phosphate	1,668,000	2,179,000	2,445,000	2,429,000	2,674,000
Ore slag	769,000	1,353,000	1,153,000	2,628,000	2,534,000
Carbonate of lime, slaked lime	1,116,000	2,230,000	1,882,000	1,905,000	2,311,000
Copper	111,000	322,000	937,000	1,647,000	1,959,000
Sulphuric acid	776,000	887,000	1,062,000	1,000,000	1,354,000
Iron, old and scrap	731,000	1,276,000	1,452,000	2,266,000	1,274,000
Lead	1,250,000	1,833,000	2,276,000	2,841,000	1,222,000
Coal	1,431,000	1,365,000	1,343,000	1,279,000	1,126,000
Zinc ores	298,000	440,000	455,000	407,000	1,103,000
Fur skins	1,577,000	1,333,000	621,000	1,055,000	1,078,000
Woolen waste	951,000	937,000	785,000	1,077,000	762,000
Oil cake	370,000	491,000	751,000	899,000	756,000
Oleic acid	751,000	822,000	836,000	725,000	755,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

BELGIUM—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Cattle hides	$364,000	$852,000	$1,042,000	$958,000	$727,000
Woolen yarns, carded	850,000	872,000	596,000	790,000	688,000
Phosphate of lime, natural	1,142,000	1,230,000	1,086,000	750,000	636,000
Potatoes	701,000	489,000	1,617,000	2,316,000	636,000
Apples, fresh	321,000	274,000	501,000	1,039,000	583,000
Chickory roots, dried	374,000	1,019,000	1,554,000	1,903,000	572,000
Paper stock	500,000	448,000	546,000	632,000	569,000
Flax tow	303,000	198,000	374,000	589,000	568,000
Passenger automobiles	414,000	472,000	477,000	695,000	525,000

BOLIVIA.

Total imports	$5,107,000	$7,047,000	$8,704,000	$9,121,000	$9,682,000
Tin ore	4,178,000	5,837,000	7,248,000	7,911,000	8,478,000
India rubber	621,000	755,000	598,000	254,000	313,000
Copper ores	6,000	3,000	9,000	225,000	240,000
Bismuth	117,000	267,000	310,000	274,000	220,000
Cattle hides	30,000	13,000	39,000	38,000	184,000

BRAZIL.

Total	$55,761,000	$66,385,000	$76,161,000	$74,537,000	$59,008,000
Coffee	29,770,000	31,268,000	45,093,000	43,628,000	33,667,000
India rubber	12,550,000	20,977,000	16,258,000	14,672,000	9,256,000
Cattle hides	5,644,000	7,085,000	5,311,000	6,399,000	6,368,000
Tobacco, leaf	2,585,000	2,079,000	2,700,000	2,809,000	2,886,000
Cocoa	1,651,000	1,563,000	1,977,000	2,238,000	1,922,000
Bran	443,000	530,000	722,000	715,000	689,000
Vegetable wax	417,000	549,000	565,000	729,000	662,000
Semiprecious stones	87,000	145,000	385,000	337,000	497,000
Cotton	7,000	16,000	103,000	93,000	357,000
Monazite sand	271,000	115,000	832,000	607,000	330,000
Manganese ores	724,000	474,000	385,000	253,000	266,000
Egrets	37,000	69,000	43,000	77,000	210,000
Precious stones	62,000	93,000	79,000	198,000	178,000
Oil cake	67,000	93,000	251,000	117,000	150,000
Tobacco rolls, plugs, and carrots, for snuff	137,000	113,000	138,000	144,000	144,000
Goat skins	267,000	151,000	149,000	252,000	141,000
Copper, scrap	45,000	72,000	84,000	83,000	124,000
Brass and tombac	37,000	66,000	71,000	43,000	117,000
Para nuts	118,000	107,000	87,000	223,000	102,000

BRITISH INDIA.

Total imports	$75,435,000	$96,162,000	$104,790,000	$126,911,000	$128,936,000
Jute, jute tow	12,222,000	10,025,000	14,718,000	17,662,000	21,873,000
Rice	7,743,000	12,532,000	15,047,000	19,108,000	18,373,000
Cotton	11,161,000	20,107,000	16,395,000	9,318,000	13,964,000
Cattle hides	5,356,000	6,018,000	5,494,000	7,842,000	11,451,000
Copra	3,237,000	3,502,000	2,572,000	4,849,000	8,006,000
India rubber	850,000	1,316,000	1,781,000	3,544,000	7,110,000
Rape and colza seed	6,627,000	7,809,000	7,458,000	6,326,000	7,088,000
Linseed	918,000	3,276,000	6,429,000	5,815,000	3,958,000
Sesame	1,676,000	3,587,000	2,607,000	1,637,000	2,820,000
Wheat	1,761,000	444,000	2,510,000	2,887,000	2,428,000
Rice bran and refuse	1,156,000	924,000	1,113,000	2,246,000	2,350,000
Manganese ores	1,145,000	1,327,000	1,629,000	1,462,000	2,114,000
Shellac	2,331,000	2,638,000	1,549,000	1,865,000	1,559,000
Goat and kid skins, dressed	2,165,000	2,156,000	2,704,000	1,650,000	1,549,000
Peanuts	626,000	1,488,000	2,088,000	1,721,000	1,431,000
Goat and kid skins, raw	797,000	1,218,000	954,000	1,370,000	1,295,000
Coir yarn	943,000	1,009,000	1,176,000	1,011,000	1,278,000
Mica	745,000	982,000	1,075,000	1,393,000	1,241,000
Oil cake	1,368,000	907,000	804,000	1,189,000	1,196,000
Coffee	957,000	777,000	822,000	864,000	1,062,000
Mowra seed; elipe nuts, shea nuts	827,000	531,000	1,573,000	1,709,000	1,022,000
Peas, dry	188,000	71,000	718,000	7,098,000	1,011,000
Tin	677,000	789,000	1,157,000	1,387,000	920,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

BRITISH INDIA—Continued

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Poppy seed	$1,160,000	$1,006,000	$1,059,000	$649,000	$814,000
Linters	706,000	981,000	917,000	676,000	721,000
India hemp, kapok, pineapple fiber	249,000	506,000	494,000	696,000	663,000
Sheep and lamb skins, dressed	511,000	524,000	733,000	712,000	627,000
Tamarinds	228,000	305,000	422,000	518,000	610,000
Cotton waste	137,000	120,000	116,000	357,000	519,000
Tungsten ores	6,000	42,000	62,000	222,000	517,000
Pepper	314,000	328,000	366,000	392,000	458,000
Jute sacking	186,000	148,000	259,000	399,000	451,000
Gutta-percha	197,000	1,160,000	452,000	609,000	446,000
Ivory	288,000	352,000	401,000	439,000	446,000
Ebony wood, sawn	114,000	242,000	236,000	426,000	446,000
Myrobalans	400,000	470,000	399,000	321,000	411,000
Ground bone	237,000	202,000	295,000	391,000	339,000
Kauri, dammar, and other resins	210,000	180,000	94,000	209,000	227,000
Tea	327,000	227,000	277,000	276,000	309,000

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.

Total imports	$14,651,000	$14,133,000	$13,304,000	$15,995,000	$16,570,000
Wool, raw	8,704,000	8,678,000	8,588,000	10,432,000	10,810,000
Ostrich feathers	2,191,000	1,980,000	1,797,000	1,949,000	2,090,000
Wool, washed	1,193,000	1,266,000	933,000	1,010,000	1,183,000
Wattle bark	569,000	694,000	767,000	825,000	1,124,000
Cattle hides	39,000	55,000	128,000	242,000	327,000
India rubber	592,000	51,000	32,000	30,000	207,000
Whalebone	.....	11,000	.....	2,000	76,000
Aloe juice	16,000	15,000	19,000	20,000	74,000
Lead ores	1,000	.....	5,000	18,000	69,000
Sheepskins, raw	34,000	22,000	20,000	76,000	67,000
Corn	816,000	904,000	492,000	830,000	64,000

BRITISH WEST AFRICA.

Total imports	$20,797,000	$25,786,000	$25,424,000	$28,221,000	$32,010,000
Palm nuts	15,534,000	19,792,000	19,762,000	20,934,000	21,588,000
Cocoa	2,210,000	2,306,000	2,875,000	3,929,000	4,660,000
Palm oil	1,341,000	1,815,000	1,442,000	1,520,000	2,004,000
Peanuts	165,000	180,000	91,000	308,000	1,761,000
Cattle hides	87,000	119,000	222,000	278,000	832,000
India rubber	959,000	1,111,000	605,000	491,000	260,000
Mahogany and palisander wood	218,000	220,000	197,000	323,000	245,000
Sesame	24,000	7,000	23,000	25,000	149,000
Corn	83,000	26,000	6,000	39,000	122,000

BULGARIA.

Total imports	$1,999,000	$1,502,000	$2,520,000	$4,274,000	$2,088,000
Eggs	1,165,000	870,000	1,127,000	1,748,000	918,000
Rose oil	172,000	200,000	283,000	533,000	500,000
Bran	74,000	82,000	235,000	378,000	112,000
Tobacco	9,000	20,000	25,000	81,000	105,000
Corn	68,000	5,000	239,000	438,000	79,000
Lamb skins	14,000	26,000	70,000	143,000	57,000
Wheat	134,000	21,000	91,000	460,000	53,000
Vetches, dry	2,000	8,000	119,000	74,000	41,000

CANADA.

Total imports	$1,997,000	$2,531,000	$5,702,000	$13,835,000	$15,293,000
Wheat	.....	685,000	3,394,000	11,013,000	12,324,000
Reaping machines	484,000	352,000	411,000	555,000	923,000
Asbestos	416,000	482,000	411,000	566,000	677,000
Lobsters, canned	32,000	109,000	155,000	139,000	166,000
Barley	.....	.....	.....	6,000	155,000
Apples, fresh	20,000	13,000	553,000	276,000	151,000
Hay tedders, presses	61,000	69,000	87,000	70,000	77,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

CEYLON.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$4,585,000	$8,421,000	$8,803,000	$9,450.000	$9,979,000
Copra	1,136,000	4,051,000	4,516,000	4,246,000	4,208,000
India rubber	353,000	1,189,000	1,210,000	1,527,000	1,874,000
Graphite	1,081,000	1,019,000	1,136,000	1,151,000	1,238,000
Coconuts	262,000	253,000	504,000	555,000	926,000
Oil cake	204,000	189,000	164,000	190,000	251,000
Tea	206,000	154,000	182,000	197,000	233,000
Cinnamon	182,000	160,000	179,000	202,000	191,000
Precious stones	136,000	64,000	86,000	224,000	173,000
Cocoa	171,000	223,000	208,000	178,000	160,000
Coconut fiber	67,000	74,000	87,000	116,000	111,000

CHILE.

Total imports	$34,157,000	$36,793,000	$37,688,000	$49,897,000	$47,561,000
Nitrate of soda	28,488,000	31.728,000	32,146,000	42,451,000	40,699,000
Wool, raw	938,000	1,211,000	883,000	1,203,000	1,976,000
Iodine	1,223,000	1,157,000	1,009,000	1,023,000	1,151,000
Borate of calcium	368,000	406,000	546,000	467,000	607,000
Cattle hides	85,000	92,000	160,000	249,000	606,000
Bran	426,000	382,000	470,000	827,000	527,000
Tin ores	312,000	335,000	892,000	1,269,000	465,000
Sole leather	535,000	512,000	554,000	632,000	386,000
Silver ores	30,000	61,000	81,000	238,000	223,000
Honey	99,000	90,000	109,000	116,000	106,000
Plants, berries, leaves, etc., for industrial purposes	138,000	185,000	131,000	95,000	103,000
Sheepskins, raw	50,000	15,000	65,000	65,000	96,000
Beeswax	18,000	49,000	30,000	56,000	79,000

CHINA.

Total imports	$15,515,000	$22,531,000	$24,596,000	$27,498,000	$31,052,000
Sesame	3,268,000	5,778,000	5,193,000	6,506,000	7,150,000
Soya beans	1,304,000	1,336,000	2,238,000	3,895,000	4,342,000
Cattle hides	1,068,000	1,958,000	2,167,000	1,929,000	4,071,000
Feathers for beds	674,000	1,358,000	1,452,000	1,325,000	1,457,000
Yolk of eggs	167,000	797,000	938,000	1,243,000	1,281,000
Cotton	1,124,000	399,000	1,552,000	475,000	976,000
Tea	870,000	950,000	986,000	1,058,000	942,000
Bristles	124,000	1,049,000	882,000	749,000	896,000
Peanuts	317,000	715,000	568,000	500,000	800,000
Wood oil	699,000	710,000	1,151,000	991,000	687,000
Fur skins	664,000	1,036,000	377,000	446,000	599,000
Plaits of straw	314,000	649,000	656,000	1,038,000	544,000
Ramie	515,000	322,000	509,000	870,000	521,000
Gallnuts	333,000	582,000	600,000	288,000	519,000
Albumen	573,000	421,000	569,000	612,000	517,000
Silk, raw, not dyed	97,000	526,000	373,000	559,000	512,000
Shea butter and other vegetable tallow	273,000	202,000	41,000	131,000	510,000
Goat and kid skins, raw	161,000	386,000	296,000	316,000	502,000
Menthol		217,000	276,000	312,000	372,000

COLOMBIA.

Total imports	$2,433,000	$3,092,000	$3,473,000	$3,122,000	$3,796,000
Coffee	703,000	613,000	746,000	696,000	957,000
Bananas	1,000			141,000	875,000
Tagua nuts	372,000	660,000	676,000	877,000	717,000
Cattle hides	259,000	650,000	785,000	367,000	484,000
Tobacco	520,000	611,000	562,000	547,000	416,000
Panama hats	62,000	42,000	144,000	81,000	99,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

COSTA RICA.

Articles	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$880,000	$896,000	$1,181,000	$1,213,000	$1,668,000
Coffee	738,000	737,000	1,017,000	928,000	1,164,000
Bananas				65,000	239,000
Cedar wood	96,000	106,000	78,000	110,000	135,000
Cattle hides	14,000	32,000	67,000	91,000	118,000

CUBA.

Total imports	$2,467,000	$2,039,000	$2,311,000	$2,737,000	$3,151,000
Cattle hides	249,000	363,000	515,000	695,000	1,071,000
Tobacco	452,000	539,000	468,000	617,000	806,000
Cigars	968,000	452,000	499,000	552,000	496,000
Cedar wood	316,000	256,000	314,000	317,000	180,000
Honey	171,000	162,000	150,000	181,000	150,000
Beeswax	63,000	86,000	70,000	90,000	133,000
Cocoa	36,000	30,000	62,000	42,000	80,000

DENMARK.

Total imports	$32,202,000	$37,629,000	$42,899,000	$48,120,000	$45,657,000
Cattle	7,800,000	8,548,000	9,457,000	7,675,000	10,595,000
Cream, fresh	3,362,000	5,599,000	5,206,000	6,658,000	6,679,000
Horses	4,589,000	5,400,000	6,062,000	5,683,000	6,077,000
Beef and veal, fresh	1,259,000	2,092,000	2,183,000	5,535,000	3,233,000
Salt-water fish and shellfish, fresh	1,433,000	1,537,000	1,853,000	2,700,000	2,824,000
Calfskins, raw	1,036,000	1,331,000	1,377,000	1,683,000	1,793,000
Pork, fresh or simply prepared	711,000	753,000	740,000	1,587,000	1,307,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	1,128,000	1,036,000	1,198,000	1,737,000	1,284,000
Butter	3,212,000	2,847,000	4,373,000	3,219,000	1,210,000
Barley	569,000	800,000	1,187,000	1,564,000	983,000
Lard	499,000	510,000	599,000	848,000	906,000
Cattle hides	778,000	597,000	612,000	927,000	863,000
Fresh-water fish, fresh	430,000	516,000	535,000	559,000	652,000
Oil cake	291,000	229,000	375,000	549,000	508,000
Sheepskins, raw	109,000	253,000	229,000	186,000	439,000
Eggs	61,000	118,000	216,000	305,000	362,000
Canary seed	72,000	118,000	162,000	204,000	295,000
Sulphate of ammonia	173,000	195,000	151,000	152,000	218,000
Cryolite	138,000	177,000	137,000	167,000	189,000
Cement	185,000	181,000	181,000	144,000	159,000
Horsehides	86,000	98,000	99,000	124,000	157,000
Lobsters	215,000	274,000	274,000	304,000	150,000
Carbonate of lime	221,000	243,000	248,000	146,000	143,000
Glycerin	3,000	6,000	30,000	58,000	128,000

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.

Total imports	$1,697,000	$2,003,000	$1,987,000	$2,018,000	$2,417,000
Tobacco	672,000	1,000,000	1,150,000	1,186,000	1,087,000
Cocoa	756,000	734,000	538,000	509,000	917,000
Cattle hides	126,000	121,000	113,000	144,000	225,000
Beeswax	18,000	19,000	6,000	12,000	55,000

DUTCH EAST INDIES.

Total imports	$44,006,000	$44,628,000	$43,881,000	$51,149,000	$54,175,000
Tobacco	20,622,000	14,337,000	15,737,000	18,813,000	18,515,000
Copra	4,834,000	8,176,000	6,561,000	9,487,000	11,761,000
Tin	4,935,000	5,963,000	7,464,000	7,217,000	6,199,000
Coffee	2,272,000	1,353,000	1,524,000	1,954,000	1,978,000
Benzine, heavy	310,000	361,000	727,000	1,344,000	1,618,000
Gutta-percha	534,000	3,154,000	1,145,000	1,452,000	1,504,000
Rice	751,000	777,000	1,109,000	1,245,000	1,137,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

DUTCH EAST INDIES—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
India rubber	$1,366,000	$2,518,000	$1,429,000	$1,487,000	$1,111,000
Cattle hides	716,000	862,000	931,000	925,000	1,070,000
Kauri, dammar, and other resins	760,000	815,000	342,000	606,000	1,036,000
Benzine, raw	2,191,000	1,365,000	1,080,000	737,000	899,000
Kapok: India hemp	519,000	785,000	670,000	698,000	771,000
Rattan	246,000	477,000	638,000	631,000	769,000
Peruvian bark	665,000	549,000	577,000	613,000	662,000
Sandalwood	152,000	217,000	406,000	407,000	660,000
Cotton	424,000	401,000	177,000	84,000	568,000
Pepper	435,000	433,000	547,000	495,000	551,000
Goat and kid skins, raw	131,000	167,000	131,000	236,000	444,000
Tea	314,000	211,000	283,000	235,000	326,000
Camphor oil, juniper oil, and other volatile oils	67,000	87,000	98,000	165,000	294,000
Boxwood, ebony, teak wood	105,000	73,000	160,000	218,000	250,000
Nutmegs	212,000	220,000	258,000	241,000	228,000
Jute, jute tow	3,000	2,000	39,000	50,000	216,000
Cocoa	109,000	142,000	280,000	216,000	207,000
Paraffin	33,000	36,000	91,000	130,000	134,000
Corn: dari	83,000	11,000	21,000	26,000	92,000

ECUADOR.

Total imports	$2,634,000	$2,543,000	$2,871,000	$3,763,000	$4,059,000
Cocoa	1,443,000	1,392,000	1,632,000	2,337,000	2,309,000
Tagua nuts	579,000	543,000	450,000	668,000	1,165,000
Panama hats	139,000	253,000	355,000	364,000	306,000
Cattle hides	36,000	56,000	94,000	67,000	143,000
India rubber	332,000	255,000	259,000	238,000	66,000

EGYPT.

Total imports	$22,783,000	$22,282,000	$23,689,000	$26,577,000	$28,176,000
Cotton	17,463,000	16,836,000	15,985,000	16,551,000	17,374,000
Cottonseed	2,867,000	3,306,000	5,266,000	7,542,000	8,409,000
Acacia gum	363,000	504,000	664,000	643,000	639,000
Cigarettes	800,000	510,000	598,000	621,000	600,000
Onions, fresh	707,000	535,000	588,000	704,000	418,000
Linters	129,000	160,000	165,000	116,000	228,000
Cattle hides	98,000	51,000	13,000	30,000	117,000
Eels, frozen	10,000	16,000	18,000	20,000	56,000

FINLAND.

Total imports	$5,657,000	$6,226,000	$8,243,000	$8,775,000	$10,763,000
Wood of conifers, sawn	2,991,000	2,988,000	4,372,000	4,143,000	6,423,000
Butter	762,000	815,000	1,526,000	2,027,000	1,185,000
Calfskins, raw	193,000	651,000	254,000	342,000	694,000
Wood of conifers, hewn	515,000	514,000	605,000	615,000	648,000
Cranberries, huckleberries	66,000	81,000	239,000	315,000	302,000
Cellulose	107,000	160,000	241,000	292,000	291,000
Spools, wooden	18,000	60,000	44,000	114,000	240,000
Pasteboard	226,000	188,000	157,000	188,000	218,000
Game, dead	43,000	56,000	36,000	38,000	80,000
Cattle hides, raw	20,000	12,000	71,000	93,000	76,000
Medicinal plants	1,000	2,000	4,000	33,000	60,000

FRANCE.

Total imports	$115,456,000	$121,099,000	$124,811,000	$131,432,000	$138,808,000
Fur skins, dressed	3,110,000	2,993,000	4,002,000	2,776,000	6,180,000
Iron ores	1,954,000	3,166,000	3,789,000	4,165,000	5,895,000
Calfskins, raw	3,446,000	1,891,000	3,892,000	2,776,000	5,565,000
Silk, raw, not dyed	3,317,000	5,666,000	4,991,000	4,896,000	5,303,000
Wine in casks	3,691,000	5,403,000	4,627,000	5,617,000	5,023,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

FRANCE—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Wool, carded or combed	$12,081,000	$9,248,000	$10,543,000	$11,031,000	$4,899,000
Apples, fresh	564,000	164,000	1,898,000	620,000	4,588,000
Cattle hides	1,533,000	3,121,000	2,724,000	4,207,000	3,871,000
Chrome, tungsten, ferrochrome, cadmium	1,000	4,000	10,000	875,000	3,493,000
Wool, washed	2,670,000	3,087,000	2,625,000	2,837,000	3,052,000
Sheep and lamb's leather, dressed	1,422,000	1,603,000	1,701,000	2,345,000	2,715,000
Clover seed	3,326,000	2,756,000	3,170,000	1,918,000	2,630,000
Kitchen vegetables, fresh	1,586,000	1,381,000	1,457,000	1,531,000	2,209,000
Oilcake	1,933,000	1,818,000	1,997,000	2,081,000	2,034,000
Sheep and lamb skins, dressed	1,067,000	1,360,000	1,283,000	1,696,000	1,872,000
Worsted yarn	2,254,000	1,614,000	1,480,000	1,754,000	1,849,000
Yarn of floss silk	1,434,000	1,613,000	2,056,000	1,790,000	1,747,000
Horses	1,157,000	1,726,000	1,858,000	1,818,000	1,747,000
Films of celluloid	109,000	1,354,000	1,340,000	1,012,000	1,617,000
Close-woven tissues of silk (except ribbons)	1,562,000	1,479,000	1,358,000	1,513,000	1,586,000
Aluminum	935,000	958,000	850,000	1,048,000	1,586,000
Wine, sparkling	1,973,000	2,276,000	1,488,000	1,507,000	1,542,000
Oils of camphor, anise, juniper, rosemary, and other volatile oils	674,000	771,000	935,000	972,000	1,417,000
Thomas phosphate	697,000	791,000	1,115,000	917,000	1,345,000
Oak, pine, and chestnut extracts	926,000	988,000	1,063,000	1,194,000	1,188,000
Beef and veal, fresh	74,000	108,000	96,000	354,000	1,090,000
Carnations, orchids, roses, violets fresh	640,000	630,000	675,000	791,000	1,068,000
Gauze, crape, and veiling, of silk	1,342,000	1,743,000	1,383,000	1,065,000	1,078,000
Turpentine resins	803,000	1,080,000	1,617,000	1,568,000	1,005,000
Passenger automobiles	1,051,000	1,034,000	1,077,000	1,039,000	977,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	822,000	778,000	766,000	873,000	943,000
Wares of gold	798,000	961,000	863,000	845,000	906,000
Carbonate of lime	785,000	908,000	820,000	750,000	891,000
Platinum and platinum metals	403,000	787,000	1,094,000	856,000	880,000
Oleomargarin	963,000	935,000	214,000	400,000	854,000
Walnuts, hazel nuts	662,000	224,000	870,000	739,000	819,000
Precious stones, wrought	680,000	616,000	510,000	500,000	795,000
Paper stock	298,000	391,000	537,000	669,000	780,000
Sheep and lamb skins, raw	865,000	537,000	643,000	718,000	772,000
Women's hats, ornamented	560,000	773,000	673,000	520,000	721,000
Goat and kid skins, raw	1,396,000	815,000	843,000	338,000	714,000
Tulle of silk	774,000	873,000	516,000	387,000	663,000
Cotton laces	291,000	360,000	383,000	480,000	633,000
Paintings	578,000	629,000	560,000	660,000	598,000
Books	567,000	562,000	531,000	546,000	538,000

FRENCH INDO-CHINA.

Total imports	$823,000	$1,312,000	$481,000	$735,000	$818,000
Rice refuse	232,000	379,000	285,000	485,000	554,000
Gum lac	7,000	55,000	23,000	52,000	115,000
Oil of star-anise	2,000	27,000	23,000	33,000	66,000
Rice	507,000	814,000	55,000	.....	3,000

FRENCH WEST AFRICA

Total imports	$2,944,000	$3,396,000	$3,410,000	$3,765,000	$4,604,000
Peanuts	1,198,000	1,026,000	1,033,000	1,191,000	1,879,000
Wood of deciduous trees, soft	.....	338,000	535,000	574,000	945,000
Palm nuts	360,000	473,000	623,000	704,000	863,000
India rubber	902,000	1,303,000	980,000	726,000	335,000
Cattle hides	52,000	16,000	17,000	47,000	146,000
Corn	33,000	16,000	2,000	36,000	124,000
Copper ores	.....	.....	.....	296,000	45,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$1,853,000	$2,571,000	$2,914,000	$3,485,000	$3,466,000
India rubber	767,000	1,330,000	1,289,000	1,732,000	1,303,000
Cotton	99,000	231,000	304,000	294,000	457,000
Sisal hemp	245,000	258,000	289,000	284,000	447,000
Peanuts	28,000	43,000	114,000	159,000	285,000
Beeswax	111,000	111,000	93,000	189,000	189,000
Coffee	125,000	126,000	204,000	135,000	143,000
Mica	94,000	85,000	87,000	200,000	127,000
Ivory	9,000	18,000	21,000	14,000	96,000

GERMAN KAMEROON.

Total imports	$2,644,000	$5,586,000	$4,016,000	$4,246,000	$3,116,000
India rubber	2,043,000	4,837,000	3,242,000	3,404,000	1,753,000
Cocoa	260,000	238,000	311,000	241,000	455,000
Palm nuts	195,000	346,000	289,000	372,000	333,000
Palm oil	16,000	45,000	29,000	13,000	204,000
Ivory	88,000	53,000	39,000	49,000	87,000

GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA.

Total imports	$788,000	$967,000	$760,000	$1,338,000	$1,802,000
Diamonds and other precious stones	362,000	724,000	595,000	1,030,000	1,283,000
Vanadium ores	.....	.....	28,000	24,000	111,000
Tin ores	.....	2,000	1,000	7,000	87,000

GREECE.

Total imports	$4,322,000	$5,060,000	$5,634,000	$5,963,000	$6,184,000
Currants	1,250,000	1,572,000	2,010,000	1,653,000	1,457,000
Wine in casks	544,000	786,000	793,000	712,000	902,000
Sheep and lamb skins	223,000	188,000	130,000	398,000	603,000
Iron ores	473,000	302,000	453,000	503,000	595,000
Tobacco	143,000	95,000	167,000	252,000	447,000
Magnesite	139,000	168,000	246,000	360,000	322,000
Zinc ores	89,000	63,000	127,000	195,000	295,000
Sponges	269,000	187,000	177,000	202,000	190,000
Figs, dried	166,000	173,000	238,000	165,000	174,000
Turpentine oil, pine-needle oil	117,000	246,000	294,000	127,000	150,000
Emery	87,000	149,000	185,000	126,000	128,000
Goat and kid skins	14,000	14,000	12,000	127,000	112,000
Cedrat fruits, fresh	75,000	23,000	92,000	49,000	98,000
Wine for the manufacture of cognac	18,000	12,000	16,000	41,000	67,000
Alabaster and marble	73,000	86,000	52,000	75,000	59,000

GUATEMALA.

Total imports	$5,935,000	$4,516,000	$6,474,000	$7,527,000	$8,298,000
Coffee	5,487,000	4,029,000	5,995,000	6,992,000	7,791,000
Cattle hides	310,000	336,000	384,000	447,000	443,000
India rubber	95,000	104,000	59,000	65,000	33,000

HAITI.

Total imports	$213,000	$291,000	$310,000	$314,000	$416,000
Cotton	60,000	122,000	71,000	32,000	108,000
Cocoa	28,000	44,000	30,000	41,000	87,000
Coffee	62,000	57,000	123,000	150,000	73,000
Honey	1,000	5,000	20,000	34,000	58,000
Logwood	33,000	32,000	37,000	24,000	37,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

ITALY.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$68,509,000	$65,340,000	$67,779,000	$72,498,000	$75,599,000
Silk, raw	30,353,000	25,512,000	23,756,000	25,328,000	26,699,000
Hemp	3,394,000	2,789,000	3,420,000	3,387,000	3,324,000
Almonds	2,207,000	2,979,000	3,369,000	3,618,000	2,795,000
Marble	1,498,000	1,616,000	1,993,000	2,454,000	2,318,000
Lemons, figs, cedrats, fresh	1,320,000	1,455,000	1,680,000	2,033,000	1,849,000
Apples, fresh	1,959,000	380,000	1,149,000	248,000	1,800,000
Eggs	1,421,000	1,260,000	1,471,000	1,706,000	1,696,000
Grapes, fresh	1,448,000	1,638,000	1,269,000	1,143,000	1,578,000
Potatoes	724,000	801,000	768,000	1,358,000	1,563,000
Cattle hides	312,000	409,000	456,000	639,000	1,430,000
Yarn of floss silk, not dyed	658,000	1,187,000	1,181,000	1,049,000	1,170,000
Sulphur	967,000	1,133,000	1,089,000	974,000	1,019,000
Flowers, fresh	281,000	244,000	272,000	357,000	927,000
Asphalt	736,000	705,000	938,000	1,019,000	911,000
Clover seed	561,000	795,000	1,889,000	1,968,000	882,000
Hazelnuts	877,000	783,000	712,000	535,000	881,000
Oranges and mandarins, fresh	970,000	1,035,000	874,000	803,000	816,000
Calfskins, raw	853,000	608,000	436,000	558,000	784,000
Pumice stone, tripoli	403,000	439,000	625,000	657,000	731,000
Must of grapes	252,000	1,118,000	214,000	90,000	621,000
Rice refuse	379,000	346,000	859,000	1,151,000	548,000
Cauliflower	498,000	521,000	407,000	953,000	544,000
Cherries, fresh	604,000	356,000	295,000	332,000	537,000
Hemp tow	581,000	624,000	772,000	575,000	517,000
Floss silk, combed	393,000	374,000	273,000	440,000	509,000
Buttons of vegetable ivory	106,000	174,000	184,000	272,000	505,000
Zinc ores	178,000	33,000	326,000	628,000	484,000
Oils of oranges, lemons, bergamots	259,000	245,000	366,000	423,000	454,000
Oak, pine, and chestnut extract	261,000	257,000	373,000	400,000	408,000
Hats of vegetable plaiting material other than straw, untrimmed	66,000	60,000	164,000	370,000	405,000
Mercury	257,000	261,000	477,000	389,000	402,000
Tartar	119,000	204,000	225,000	200,000	402,000
Peaches, fresh	354,000	186,000	203,000	195,000	392,000
Tomatoes, artichokes, melons	168,000	210,000	179,000	318,000	347,000
Rhubarb, cucumbers, carrots	334,000	382,000	426,000	330,000	339,000
Wine in casks	317,000	1,279,000	905,000	342,000	338,000
Olive oil	239,000	553,000	295,000	487,000	337,000

JAPAN.

Total imports	$6,956,000	$8,760,000	$8,942,000	$10,266,000	$11,098,000
Silk, raw, not dyed	770,000	1,073,000	932,000	1,550,000	2,017,000
Pongees (habutae), raw	1,169,000	1,305,000	1,299,000	1,130,000	1,271,000
Oil of camphor; menthol	220,000	379,000	447,000	603,000	1,243,000
Camphor	1,114,000	966,000	1,241,000	1,123,000	574,000
Copper	80,000	892,000	572,000	721,000	565,000
Train oil	266,000	452,000	319,000	269,000	525,000
Fur skins	265,000	387,000	237,000	312,000	408,000
Oak wood	51,000	72,000	208,000	350,000	405,000
Trimmings and button-makers' ware			78,000	267,000	290,000
Cattle hides	6,000	1,000	17,000	61,000	232,000
Floss silk, combed	175,000	212,000	134,000	155,000	213,000
Tin ores			77,000	150,000	210,000
Plaits of straw	366,000	372,000	368,000	325,000	208,000
Agar-agar	77,000	87,000	144,000	182,000	159,000
Zinc ores	10,000	1,000	86,000	275,000	120,000
Vegetable wax	104,000	122,000	99,000	100,000	118,000
Plaited wood shavings	380,000	475,000	160,000	158,000	117,000

MADAGASCAR.

Total imports	$1,536,000	$2,815,000	$2,565,000	$2,033,000	$2,097,000
Cattle hides	467,000	724,000	761,000	601,000	874,000
Raffia and piassava fibers	113,000	142,000	172,000	194,000	209,000
Mangrove bark	129,000	246,000	293,000	312,000	186,000
Vanilla	126,000	106,000	270,000	125,000	182,000
Semiprecious stones	1,000	7,000	103,000	119,000	154,000
Beeswax	134,000	139,000	135,000	146,000	125,000
India rubber	454,000	1,318,000	607,000	360,000	1124000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

MEXICO.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$5,119,000	$5,641,000	$7,384,000	$8,459,000	$5,958,000
Coffee	1,153,000	724,000	1,120,000	1,103,000	1,528,000
Agave fibers	439,000	498,000	616,000	852,000	1,368,000
Cattle hides	247,000	342,000	369,000	337,000	551,000
India rubber	1,493,000	2,437,000	2,901,000	2,334,000	642,000
Piassava and other fibers	409,000	450,000	422,000	437,000	534,000
Oil cake	63,000	172,000	267,000	364,000	310,000
Tobacco	401,000	186,000	229,000	260,000	197,000
Logwood	131,000	130,000	131,000	182,000	133,000
Linaloa oil	32,000	40,000	45,000	52,000	106,000

MOROCCO.

Total imports	$1,847,000	$2,168,000	$2,970,000	$4,538,000	$2,315,000
Almonds	370,000	610,000	669,000	693,000	868,000
Wool, raw	115,000	412,000	410,000	249,000	590,000
Goat and kid skins	166,000	186,000	207,000	209,000	288,000
Sheep and lamb skins	83,000	85,000	67,000	66,000	160,000
Medicinal plants	80,000	69,000	91,000	115,000	94,000
Barley	431,000	164,000	737,000	2,207,000	----------
Wheat	67,000	69,000	163,000	403,000	----------

NETHERLANDS.

Total imports	$60,312,000	$61,515,000	$70,862,000	$82,195,000	$79,260,000
Butter	9,074,000	8,696,000	7,720,000	10,587,000	10,102,000
Cheese	3,839,000	4,020,000	4,274,000	4,093,000	5,155,000
Herring, salted	2,786,000	3,295,000	3,171,000	3,332,000	4,124,000
Horses	1,837,000	2,319,000	2,213,000	2,325,000	2,949,000
Cucumbers, carrots, lettuce	1,780,000	2,350,000	3,534,000	3,473,000	2,752,000
Beef and veal, fresh	1,064,000	1,088,000	978,000	2,259,000	2,661,000
Pork, fresh	1,609,000	516,000	27,000	1,395,000	2,392,000
Coal	1,537,000	1,509,000	2,047,000	2,309,000	2,369,000
Potatoes	2,177,000	1,748,000	6,456,000	5,450,000	2,323,000
Eggs	1,422,000	2,009,000	1,742,000	1,991,000	2,268,000
Cattle hides	910,000	1,379,000	1,836,000	1,747,000	2,034,000
Fruits, fresh	1,010,000	847,000	1,221,000	2,030,000	1,873,000
Rice, polished	1,903,000	1,994,000	2,109,000	2,084,000	1,783,000
Salt-water fish, fresh	818,000	1,072,000	1,054,000	1,395,000	1,437,000
Bulbs and tubers of flowers	753,000	613,000	833,000	1,791,000	1,190,000
Chickens	762,000	1,256,000	933,000	1,140,000	1,176,000
Cauliflower	500,000	522,000	593,000	701,000	1,163,000
Bran	1,042,000	780,000	1,247,000	1,377,000	1,112,000
Oil cake	628,000	771,000	779,000	894,000	1,087,000
Cotton waste	714,000	762,000	702,000	714,000	900,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	540,000	608,000	593,000	633,000	739,000
Beans and pease, fresh	705,000	716,000	1,223,000	683,000	685,000
Precious stones, wrought, not set	675,000	481,000	605,000	790,000	681,000
Fresh-water fish	732,000	769,000	769,000	669,000	666,000
Cattle	3,000	3,000	2,000	935,000	657,000
Books	541,000	600,000	759,000	669,000	633,000
Iron, old and scrap	397,000	509,000	473,000	523,000	617,000
Wood of conifers, sawn	265,000	325,000	420,000	546,000	558,000
Tin	226,000	445,000	716,000	1,028,000	553,000
Hay and green fodder	735,000	389,000	691,000	590,000	550,000
Paper stock	353,000	402,000	407,000	424,000	519,000
Zinc	557,000	415,000	573,000	924,000	509,000

NEW ZEALAND.

Total imports	$504,000	$1,224,000	$1,691,000	$2,112,000	$2,397,000
Wool, raw	218,000	755,000	1,349,000	1,711,000	1,623,000
Kauri and other gums	113,000	130,000	51,000	172,000	250,000
New Zealand flax	74,000	70,000	65,000	79,000	212,000
Tungsten ores	18,000	45,000	41,000	17,000	95,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

NICARAGUA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	**$384,000**	**$246.000**	**$309,000**	**$297,000**	**$297,000**
Coffee	293,000	168,000	248,000	228,000	250,000
Cedar wood	71,000	30,000	38,000	32,000	25,000
Cattle hides	10,000	36,000	6,000	16,000	9,000

NORWAY.

Total imports	$8,770,000	$11,820,000	$12,876,000	$15,215,000	$19,510,000
Train oil	1,064,000	1,627,000	1,689,000	2,058,000	3,624,000
Norway saltpeter; ferrosilicon	289,000	982,000	605,000	1,733,000	1,788,000
Iron ores	5,000	14,000	91,000	649,000	1,770,000
Salt-water fish, fresh	1,212,000	1,784,000	1,462,000	1,381,000	1,743,000
Herring, salted	620,000	825,000	908,000	1,033,000	1,304,000
Nitrite	229,000	337,000	328,000	716,000	806,000
Calcium carbide	337,000	421,000	627,000	729,000	726,000
Zinc	4,000	113,000	412,000	644,000	701,000
Blood of animals, refuse of fish, stable refuse	146,000	267,000	362,000	558,000	693,000
Cattle hides	137,000	159,000	297,000	393,000	588,000
Nitrate of ammonia	.....	25,000	71,000	60,000	494,000
Bran	693,000	333,000	987,000	616,000	357,000
Calfskins	259,000	332,000	283.000	258,000	324,000
Lobsters	249,000	317,000	271,000	300,000	309,000
Wood of conifers, sawn	438,000	411,000	491,000	350,000	291,000
Aluminum	25,000	51,000	153,000	92,000	271,000
Pyrites	.....	2,000	60,000	208,000	269,000
Sprats in oil	20,000	75,000	61,000	125,000	257,000
Felspar	171,000	211,000	204,000	210,000	222,000
Stonecutters' work, plain	243,000	255,000	242,000	266,000	218,000
Copper	69,000	32,000	67,000	109,000	205,000
Whalebone	150,000	297,000	187,000	338.000	140,000
Codfish, dried	148,000	179,000	185,000	119,000	121,000
Cellulose	89,000	124,000	97,000	125,000	102,000
Granite blocks	38,000	68,000	64,000	71,000	102,000

PANAMA.

Total imports	**$133,000**	**$117,000**	**$165,000**	**$262,000**	**$133,000**
Shells of mollusks	25,000	43,000	52,000	44,000	40,000
Nuts and shells for carving	71,000	13,000	38,000	82,000	23,000
Panama hats	17,000	10,000	25,000	42,000	17,000
Tortoise shells	9,000	8,000	10,000	20,000	15,000

PARAGUAY.

Total imports	**$865,000**	**$1,250,000**	**$1,042,000**	**$1,371,000**	**$1,711,000**
Cattle hides	739,000	1,106,000	893,000	1,110,000	1,510,000
Tobacco	26,000	42,000	57,000	67,000	70,000
Egrets	.....	3,000	30,000	128,000	60,000
Oil of petit grain	5,000	.....	5,000	9,000	14,000

PERSIA.

Total imports	**$635,000**	**$657,000**	**$2,257,000**	**$3,720,000**	**$1,829,000**
Woolen rugs	66,000	115,000	336,000	403,000	397,000
Opium	108,000	19,000	174,000	138,000	350,000
Gum tragacanth	94,000	155,000	238,000	264,000	259,000
Barley	28,000	31,000	452,000	2,097,000	236,000
Rice	.....	.....	67,000	53,000	171,000
Almonds	50,000	46,000	33,000	8,000	70,000
Dates, dried	50,000	55,000	35,000	83,000	55,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

PERU.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$3,059,000	$3,456,000	$4,908,000	$3,212,000	$3,273,000
Guano	874,000	817,000	843,000	798,000	1,000,000
Cattle hides	190,000	223,000	329,000	371,000	000,000
India rubber	952,000	861,000	942,000	667,000	000,000
Borate of calcium	160,000	196,000	218,000	136,000	000,000
Silver ores	124,000	238,000	969,000	320,000	175,000
Lead ores	109,000	67,000	100,000	171,000	151,000
Wool	42,000	75,000	49,000	84,000	119,000
Panama hats	120,000	192,000	222,000	192,000	169,000
Cocaine	296,000	294,000	232,000	131,000	104,000

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Total imports	$885,000	$920,000	$1,181,000	$2,245,000	$2,000,000
Copra	189,000	189,000	500,000	1,430,000	1,000,000
Manila hemp	531,000	627,000	598,000	679,000	000,000
Oil cake	16,000				00,000
Resins	72,000	57,000	19,000	49,000	00,000
Cigars	30,000	11,000	15,000	19,000	00,000

PORTUGAL.

Total imports	$3,084,000	$5,176,000	$6,064,000	$5,879,000	$6,010,000
Cork	958,000	1,265,000	1,382,000	1,730,000	1,515,000
Wine in casks	392,000	950,000	1,626,000	864,000	840,000
Pineapples, fresh	250,000	505,000	600,000	629,000	687,000
Sardines, canned	81,000	113,000	200,000	287,000	310,000
Pyrites	164,000	268,000	139,000	226,000	293,000
Tungsten ores	160,000	225,000	182,000	152,000	232,000
Cork waste	98,000	46,000	109,000	103,000	198,000
Beeswax	113,000	126,000	246,000	257,000	188,000
Jewelry of silver	23,000	59,000	79,000	94,000	178,000
Lamb and sheep skins	134,000	97,000	97,000	138,000	149,000
Goatskins	134,000	86,000	87,000	158,000	148,000
Iron ores	5,000		23,000		198,000
Cork stoppers	106,000	86,000	153,000	176,000	145,000
Almonds, dried		24,000	44,000	37,000	118,000
Copper, crude and scrap; copper coins	60,000	114,000	99,000	122,000	115,000
Oil cake	129,000	83,000	159,000	172,000	110,000
Grapes, fresh	35,000	157,000	144,000	177,000	106,000

PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA.

Total imports	$1,041,000	$946,000	$795,000	$777,000	$616,000
Copper					177,000
India rubber	462,000	534,000	306,000	315,000	123,000
Beeswax	30,000	25,000	35,000	123,000	81,000
Sesame	70,000	49,000	37,000	74,000	67,000
Peanuts	334,000	251,000	292,000	147,000	57,000
Chrome ore	1,000	12,000	24,000	32,000	48,000

PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA.

Total imports	$3,003,000	$3,645,000	$4,678,000	$4,568,000	$4,304,000
Cocoa	2,157,000	2,796,000	3,753,000	3,746,000	3,381,000
Peanuts	84,000	62,000	138,000	146,000	275,000
Palm nuts	61,000	62,000	127,000	140,000	192,000
Beeswax	96,000	115,000	61,000	79,000	142,000
India rubber	447,000	475,000	350,000	232,000	118,000
Cattle hides	31,000	10,000	11,000	19,000	68,000
Coffee	95,000	88,000	173,000	108,000	45,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

ROUMANIA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$15,361,000	$16,394,000	$25,643,000	$32,886,000	$18,971,000
Wheat	5,480,000	6,378,000	8,652,000	11,332,000	3,825,000
Benzine, raw	428,000	736,000	1,080,000	2,695,000	2,686,000
Barley	999,000	1,129,000	4,241,000	4,282,000	2,346,000
Corn	3,017,000	1,756,000	4,053,000	6,019,000	1,830,000
Eggs	789,000	585,000	696,000	1,036,000	1,373,000
Rape and colza seed	245,000	1,192,000	586,000	679,000	1,300,000
Benzine, heavy	6,000	29,000	121,000	766,000	937,000
Kerosene	427,000	490,000	473,000	396,000	730,000
Beans, dry	127,000	209,000	480,000	346,000	454,000
Wood of conifers, sawn	1,149,000	1,378,000	1,351,000	626,000	432,000
Rye	505,000	674,000	1,426,000	994,000	410,000
Lubricating oils, mineral	8,000	8,000	43,000	359,000	366,000
Walnuts	254,000	489,000	247,000	160,000	283,000
Bran	141,000	183,000	316,000	317,000	265,000
Oats	1,065,000	470,000	618,000	1,170,000	263,000
Pease, dry	122,000	117,000	222,000	236,000	238,000
Linseed	1,000	16,000	23,000	88,000	167,000

RUSSIA.

Total imports	$324,613,000	$330,013,000	$388,951,000	$363,628,000	$339,055,000
Barley	63,744,000	65,512,000	98,322,000	75,535,000	77,707,000
Wood of conifers	19,854,000	20,589,000	21,302,000	24,014,000	22,024,000
Wheat	54,051,000	56,721,000	42,625,000	22,595,000	19,466,000
Eggs	16,794,000	17,889,000	17,018,000	16,301,000	19,118,000
Butter	8,918,000	8,416,000	15,973,000	12,877,000	14,955,000
Bran	13,981,000	10,760,000	16,775,000	20,696,000	14,242,000
Flax	7,543,000	8,632,000	9,972,000	14,659,000	12,715,000
Oil cake	6,320,000	6,376,000	7,166,000	7,966,000	9,906,000
Fur skins	16,856,000	19,131,000	13,746,000	13,629,000	8,725,000
Rye	8,381,000	9,291,000	16,452,000	8,831,000	8,549,000
Oats	12,046,000	10,039,000	14,726,000	12,558,000	7,768,000
Wood for the manufacture of pulp or cellulose	4,220,000	4,213,000	3,599,000	5,910,000	7,539,000
Geese, live	5,407,000	6,177,000	5,482,000	7,254,000	7,384,000
Horses	3,784,000	5,055,000	4,970,000	4,671,000	5,969,000
Hogs	5,117,000	4,209,000	3,664,000	5,519,000	5,903,000
Clover seed	5,039,000	5,293,000	6,530,000	5,745,000	4,722,000
Bristles	3,307,000	3,921,000	4,157,000	4,819,000	4,499,000
Lubricating oils, mineral	3,159,000	2,969,000	3,789,000	3,937,000	4,311,000
Hemp	2,727,000	2,528,000	4,025,000	3,665,000	4,219,000
Manganese ores	2,160,000	2,787,000	1,602,000	3,046,000	4,149,000
Pease	3,791,000	3,139,000	7,048,000	6,559,000	4,033,000
Calfskins	5,851,000	4,050,000	4,213,000	5,257,000	3,972,000
Cattle hides	343,000	401,000	339,000	1,647,000	3,773,000
Iron ores	2,957,000	4,534,000	4,958,000	4,050,000	3,028,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	3,432,000	3,372,000	2,993,000	2,746,000	2,936,000
Platinum ores	1,244,000	1,368,000	1,207,000	2,730,000	2,919,000
Wood of deciduous trees, soft	1,866,000	1,954,000	2,697,000	3,302,000	2,693,000
Corn	3,930,000	2,107,000	6,424,000	7,454,000	2,382,000
Caviare	2,216,000	2,032,000	2,154,000	2,221,000	2,317,000
Benzine, raw	361,000	460,000	614,000	2,098,000	2,297,000
Linseed	2,294,000	3,875,000	4,165,000	5,160,000	2,173,000
Oak wood	1,636,000	1,754,000	1,900,000	2,626,000	2,092,000
Railway ties of wood	1,982,000	1,022,000	1,508,000	1,636,000	1,750,000
Poultry, killed	940,000	1,438,000	1,517,000	1,741,000	1,657,000
Flax, tow	952,000	971,000	964,000	1,155,000	1,534,000
Sugar-beet seeds	328,000	481,000	1,140,000	2,960,000	1,490,000
Pork, fresh	389,000	345,000	228,000	820,000	1,401,000
Lentils	2,193,000	2,139,000	2,994,000	1,898,000	1,353,000
Goat and kid skins	1,176,000	1,104,000	843,000	1,165,000	1,228,000
Chickens	1,091,000	1,201,000	1,202,000	1,209,000	1,214,000
Sheep and lamb skins	1,050,000	1,048,000	893,000	1,127,000	1,210,000
Staves and headings of oak	850,000	510,000	514,000	774,000	923,000
Buckwheat	414,000	413,000	1,010,000	907,000	872,000
Feathers for beds	788,000	786,000	894,000	866,000	872,000
Horsehair	878,000	608,000	1,157,000	1,090,000	812,000
Beef and veal, fresh	.....	1,000	.....	302,000	789,000
Ore slag and waste from smelting works	86,000	96,000	130,000	601,000	704,000
Rape and colza seed	218,000	131,000	204,000	736,000	694,000
Fresh-water fish	507,000	627,000	722,000	610,000	580,000
Platinum	395,000	252,000	229,000	362,000	572,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

SALVADOR.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$914,000	$926,000	$1,075,000	$[illegible]	$[illegible]
Coffee	750,000	594,000	874,000	[illegible]	1,[illegible]
Cattle hides	45,000	84,000	74,000	[illegible]	[illegible]
Peru and tolu balsams	102,000	104,000	69,000	[illegible]	[illegible]
Indigo	10,000	35,000	34,000	[illegible]	[illegible]

SERBIA.

Total imports	$3,662,000	$4,267,000	$5,393,000	$4,695,000	$2,508,000
Plums, dried	772,000	784,000	1,705,000	560,000	584,000
Copper			228,000	518,000	457,000
Eggs	273,000	397,000	564,000	695,000	327,000
Wheat	349,000	442,000	696,000	1,403,000	259,000
Lamb and sheep skins	190,000	52,000	69,000	154,000	283,000
Lard	305,000	440,000	168,000	197,000	224,000
Plums, pulped	217,000	299,000	124,000	47,000	79,000
Poultry, killed	26,000	11,000	33,000	57,000	50,000

SIAM.

Total imports	$2,932,000	$2,730,000	$1,984,000	$1,666,000	$3,347,000
Rice	2,728,000	2,399,000	1,774,000	1,498,000	3,009,000
Rice refuse	61,000	122,000	17,000		103,000
Cattle hides	9,000	7,000	29,000	7,000	69,000
Teak wood	99,000	95,000	65,000	89,000	49,000
Gum lac	11,000	63,000	23,000	18,000	47,000

SPAIN.

Total imports	$29,443,000	$33,363,000	$39,050,000	$45,176,000	$47,283,000
Iron ores	9,370,000	12,598,000	14,265,000	17,293,000	17,289,000
Pyrites	5,401,000	3,251,000	3,790,000	4,933,000	5,045,000
Oranges and mandarins	3,159,000	3,852,000	3,987,000	4,361,000	4,813,000
Lead	558,000	878,000	794,000	2,088,000	2,743,000
Wine in casks	1,742,000	3,202,000	4,169,000	3,956,000	3,677,000
Bananas	679,000	1,022,000	1,462,000	1,237,000	1,612,000
Grape must	329,000	852,000	1,226,000	1,165,000	1,191,000
Sheep and lamb skins	970,000	558,000	805,000	1,087,000	926,000
Almonds, dried	751,000	457,000	569,000	238,000	917,000
Cork stoppers	665,000	640,000	894,000	855,000	783,000
Grapes, fresh	259,000	528,000	570,000	694,000	760,000
Canned foods	415,000	540,000	559,000	648,000	667,000
Goat and kid skins	268,000	182,000	230,000	544,000	435,000
Copper	269,000	333,000	355,000	259,000	363,000
Red wine for blending	201,000	273,000	153,000	167,000	344,000
Jewelry of silver	64,000	150,000	136,000	223,000	318,000
Tartar	74,000	94,000	183,000	224,000	307,000
Kitchen vegetables, fresh	73,000	129,000	214,000	185,000	276,000
Hazel nuts	196,000	86,000	246,000	274,000	184,000

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

Total imports	$6,451,000	$10,864,000	$6,531,000	$5,652,000	$5,792,000
Rattan	1,004,000	896,000	986,000	1,103,000	1,291,000
India rubber	1,071,000	2,427,000	1,248,000	1,434,000	1,147,000
Tin	430,000	336,000	228,000	493,000	918,000
Copra	685,000	1,144,000	899,000	432,000	550,000
Pepper	462,000	353,000	537,000	476,000	472,000
Gutta-percha	2,157,000	4,845,000	1,831,000	588,000	466,000
Tungsten ores	19,000	51,000	85,000	94,000	247,000
Sago, tapioca	129,000	131,000	180,000	195,000	119,000
Catechu	89,000	301,000	226,000	255,000	118,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

SWEDEN.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$33,758,000	$38,986,000	$43,554,000	$50,927,000	$53,350,000
Iron ores	11,997,000	13,919,000	15,003,000	17,062,000	20,637,000
Wood of conifers	6,369,000	7,726,000	8,317,000	9,431,000	8,240,000
Paving stones	1,715,000	1,739,000	1,840,000	1,961,000	2,128,000
Cattle				1,185,000	1,402,000
Calfskins	492,000	1,285,000	1,278,000	1,055,000	1,344,000
Salt-water fish, fresh	1,314,000	1,051,000	1,586,000	1,793,000	1,320,000
Cream, fresh	211,000	609,000	487,000	690,000	1,166,000
Pig iron	783,000	969,000	1,063,000	1,103,000	1,152,000
Granite and syenite blocks	1,290,000	1,110,000	1,186,000	884,000	1,117,000
Cellulose	605,000	603,000	1,043,000	1,117,000	1,053,000
Sash, doors, frames of wood, rough	641,000	849,000	1,058,000	993,000	704,000
Slag and waste from smelting works	26,000	167,000	234,000	506,000	682,000
Bran	285,000	111,000	449,000	643,000	575,000
Norway saltpeter; acids and salts not elsewhere specified	49,000	93,000	53,000	280,000	544,000
Malleable iron in bars	461,000	630,000	498,000	343,000	531,000
Carbonate of lime	393,000	547,000	656,000	428,000	501,000
Chrome, manganese, silicon				136,000	469,000
Iron wire	170,000	531,000	645,000	640,000	468,000
Stonecutters' work, plain	823,000	653,000	607,000	522,000	456,000
Cattle hides	214,000	312,000	334,000	494,000	455,000
Beef and veal, fresh	1,000	182,000	769,000	1,165,000	444,000
Cream separators	390,000	336,000	485,000	408,000	431,000
Cranberries, huckleberries	782,000	357,000	223,000	464,000	377,000
Copper	79,000	227,000	142,000	385,000	370,000
Iron tubes, rolled or drawn	206,000	378,000	294,000	232,000	366,000
Blooms, billets, puddled bars, ingots	203,000	241,000	282,000	408,000	337,000
Brass and tombac	142,000	160,000	187,000	400,000	317,000
Pork, fresh or simply prepared	16,000	30,000	47,000	241,000	281,000
Packing paper	113,000	147,000	174,000	207,000	245,000
Feldspar	132,000	126,000	185,000	222,000	233,000

SWITZERLAND.

Total imports	$38,710,000	$41,386,000	$42,753,000	$48,963,000	$50,767,000
Watches	4,714,000	5,325,000	5,674,000	6,089,000	5,971,000
Cotton fabrics	2,631,000	2,927,000	2,942,000	3,275,000	4,175,000
Yarn of floss silk, not dyed	3,625,000	3,674,000	3,739,000	3,123,000	3,393,000
Silk, raw	2,624,000	2,133,000	1,901,000	1,966,000	2,885,000
Cheese	2,017,000	2,097,000	2,096,000	2,103,000	2,698,000
Aluminum	546,000	1,126,000	1,005,000	2,481,000	2,309,000
Cattle hides	1,248,000	1,360,000	1,338,000	1,563,000	1,840,000
Machinery	1,105,000	1,251,000	1,482,000	1,849,000	1,563,000
Chocolate	745,000	936,000	1,031,000	1,166,000	1,150,000
Cotton yarn	714,000	911,000	821,000	921,000	1,139,000
Metalloids, acids, salt, not specially mentioned	154,000	343,000	492,000	831,000	1,138,000
Calcium carbide	571,000	692,000	785,000	1,048,000	1,120,000
Worsted yarn	1,268,000	1,088,000	1,168,000	1,318,000	1,077,000
Alkaloids, alkaloid salts and compounds	251,000	346,000	675,000	843,000	1,072,000
Coal-tar dyes	892,000	944,000	901,000	981,000	944,000
Calfskins	830,000	724,000	716,000	831,000	813,000
Close-woven tissues of silk	1,111,000	958,000	711,000	787,000	688,000
Books	644,000	694,000	617,000	599,000	616,000
Milk, fresh	390,000	459,000	553,000	543,000	579,000
Cotton waste	419,300	480,000	418,000	392,000	513,000
Woolen suitings	342,000	367,300	380,000	439,000	472,000
Shoes of leather	212,000	237,000	261,000	342,000	427,000
Commercial automobiles	42,000	139,000	319,000	465,000	346,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	121,000	230,000	282,000	274,000	341,000
Sodium	207,000	229,000	148,000	243,000	298,000
Foods, chemically prepared	1,000	203,000	777,000	175,000	288,000

TOGO.

Total imports	**$895,000**	**$761,000**	**$807,000**	**$1,479,000**	**$1,739,000**
Palm nuts	**179,000**	**174,000**	**389,000**	**1,052,000**	**1,457,000**
India rubber	**190,000**	**338,000**	**242,000**	**222,000**	**95,000**
Cotton	**70,000**	**115,000**	**108,000**	**135,000**	**76,000**

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

TUNIS.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$889,000	$868,000	$1,199,000	$2,179,000	$2,511,000
Phosphate of lime, natural	396,000	229,000	741,000	1,371,000	1,286,000
Iron ores	297,000	547,000	315,000	637,000	652,000
Lead ores	69,000	12,000	1,000	14,000	208,000
Goat and sheep skins	38,000	24,000	40,000	65,000	114,000
Zinc ores	55,000	7,000	54,000	6,000	108,000

TURKEY (INCLUDING CRETE PRIOR TO 1912).

Total imports	$13,635,000	$16,054,000	$16,682,000	$18,482,000	$17,604,000
Tobacco	3,521,000	3,610,000	4,258,000	4,819,000	4,671,000
Raisins	1,574,000	2,068,000	2,391,000	2,147,000	2,250,000
Woolen rugs	1,733,000	1,792,000	1,966,000	2,176,000	2,244,000
Valonia	613,000	973,000	464,000	332,000	688,000
Hazel nuts	412,000	875,000	776,000	559,000	604,000
Opium	534,000	665,000	683,000	588,000	601,000
Figs, dried	317,000	441,000	430,000	484,000	514,000
Cotton	204,000	248,000	134,000	232,000	498,000
Fur skins, raw	625,000	437,000	453,000	739,000	456,000
Wine in casks	276,000	413,000	395,000	367,000	404,000
Goat and kid skins	159,000	240,000	154,000	452,000	380,000
Emery	220,000	152,000	213,000	280,000	347,000
Lamb and sheep skins	331,000	232,000	253,000	337,000	324,000
Eggs	323,000	255,000	240,000	682,000	285,000
Silk, raw	110,000	249,000	201,000	249,000	228,000
Pyrites	46,000	113,900	97,000	204,000	227,000
Poppy seed	55,000	253,000	318,000	203,000	225,000

UNITED KINGDOM.

Total imports	$172,133,000	$182,444,000	$192,497,000	$200,543,000	$208,454,000
Coal	33,731,000	32,164,000	37,003,000	39,576,000	42,741,000
Cotton yarn	19,393,000	21,937,000	21,248,000	22,123,000	21,718,000
Worsted yarn	12,627,000	13,528,000	13,143,000	12,108,000	12,106,000
Herring, salted	4,046,000	5,236,000	5,236,000	5,950,000	6,664,000
Genappes, mohair, and alpaca yarn	8,335,000	8,228,000	7,628,000	6,462,000	6,644,000
Woolen suitings	4,141,000	4,631,000	5,149,000	5,702,000	5,213,000
Seagoing ships of iron or steel	1,314,000	739,000	2,154,000	1,048,000	5,144,000
Machinery	4,623,000	4,626,600	4,807,000	5,397,000	5,004,000
Wool, carded or combed	3,793,000	4,287,000	3,853,000	3,999,000	4,869,000
Sheep, lamb, and goat skins, dressed	2,290,000	3,223,000	2,794,000	3,073,000	3,697,000
Close-woven tissues of cotton, unbleached	2,274,000	2,547,000	2,293,000	2,179,000	3,229,000
Tin plate	2,564,000	3,241,000	3,395,000	3,431,000	3,142,000
Salt-water fish, fresh	2,093,000	2,175,000	2,678,000	3,137,000	3,115,000
Fur skins, raw	739,000	546,000	557,000	607,000	2,318,000
Films of celluloid	163,000	243,000	2,713,000	2,734,000	2,305,000
Fur skins, dressed	1,409,000	1,284,000	2,151,000	2,099,000	2,229,000
Bran	2,528,000	1,793,000	2,630,000	4,103,000	2,176,000
Wool, raw and washed	2,707,000	1,802,000	1,989,000	2,236,000	2,151,000
Horses	879,000	1,173,000	1,306,000	1,134,000	1,784,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	1,229,000	1,516,000	1,375,000	1,442,000	1,717,000
Cotton waste	1,294,000	1,143,000	1,195,000	1,224,000	1,699,000
Tin	880,000	946,000	1,375,000	1,624,000	1,636,000
Linen yarn	1,225,000	1,598,000	1,629,000	1,464,000	1,534,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	1,151,000	1,183,000	1,248,000	1,159,000	1,367,000
Pig iron	1,230,000	1,139,000	1,075,000	1,487,000	1,347,000
Cotton tissues, dressed, bleached	832,000	904,000	845,000	904,000	1,340,000
Cotton velvet and plush	737,000	843,000	1,147,000	1,492,000	1,339,000
Oil cake	1,145,000	1,513,000	1,487,000	1,763,000	1,262,000
Noils	1,324,000	1,155,000	962,000	1,153,000	1,225,000
Blood of animals, refuse of fish, stable manure	333,000	622,000	918,000	973,000	1,183,000
Alkaloids, alkaloid salts and compounds	596,000	545,000	1,152,000	1,136,000	1,134,000
Soft India Rubber paste	452,000	1,449,000	1,239,000	1,444,000	1,066,000
Malt sprouts	1,118,000	857,000	973,000	1,330,000	1,048,000
Grass seed	1,058,000	1,115,000	1,126,000	1,224,000	1,042,000
China clay	937,000	928,000	944,000	1,231,000	1,013,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk	674,000	873,000	981,000	961,000	950,000
Books	485,000	743,000	911,000	917,000	906,000

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GERMANY'S IMPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

UNITED STATES.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$300,490,000	$282,652,000	$319,726,000	$377,464,000	$407,246,000
Cotton	96,715,000	94,578,000	108,001,000	110,561,000	109,896,000
Copper	42,072,000	45,206,000	49,383,000	65,945,000	69,981,000
Wheat	13,888,000	6,701,000	11,523,000	18,597,000	39,243,000
Lard	25,230,000	15,161,000	19,927,000	25,074,000	26,711,000
Fur skins, raw	16,535,000	14,950,000	10,495,000	14,657,000	15,827,000
Kerosene	12,569,000	11,013,000	9,110,000	11,882,000	12,612,000
Oil cake	8,510,000	6,930,000	7,442,000	8,589,000	7,684,000
Wood of conifers, sawn	4,830,000	5,894,000	6,745,000	9,519,000	6,535,000
Barley	12,000	13,000	31,000	346,000	5,480,000
Phosphate of lime, natural	4,791,000	3,550,000	4,507,000	4,077,000	5,013,000
Oleomargarine	4,772,000	4,606,000	5,346,000	6,139,000	5,000,000
Lubricating oils, mineral	3,236,000	3,178,000	3,582,000	4,390,000	4,755,000
Turpentine resins	3,232,000	4,822,000	7,476,000	6,472,000	4,676,000
Corn	2,975,000	2,836,000	3,968,000	3,914,000	4,595,000
Reaping machines	2,760,000	2,375,000	2,307,000	2,742,000	4,247,000
Turpentine oil, rosin spirit	3,753,000	4,182,000	3,426,000	3,657,000	3,919,000
Prunes	1,152,000	1,938,000	768,000	2,221,000	3,896,000
Linters	1,648,000	1,814,000	2,050,000	2,891,000	3,889,000
Bran	2,103,000	1,585,000	3,550,000	5,027,000	3,664,000
Benzine, raw	865,000	1,249,000	2,182,000	3,604,000	2,239,000
Apples and pears, dried	1,808,000	1,677,000	2,160,000	2,241,000	2,206,000
Premier jus	648,000	1,209,000	1,488,000	2,755,000	2,170,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	2,716,000	2,376,000	2,814,000	2,292,000	2,049,000
Malt sprouts	1,462,000	1,452,000	1,710,000	1,707,000	2,023,000
Salmon	1,341,000	1,541,000	1,634,000	1,687,000	1,984,000
Nickel	1,005,000	1,314,000	1,338,000	969,000	1,745,000
Tobacco	1,951,000	1,794,000	1,723,000	1,910,000	1,705,000
Oats	34,000	10,000	27,000	2,561,000	1,617,000
Cottonseed oil	3,183,000	1,231,000	1,496,000	2,931,000	1,595,000
Cattle hides	501,000	973,000	1,124,000	1,036,000	1,575,000
Lead	1,656,000	1,268,000	2,389,000	1,948,000	1,423,000
Metal-working machinery	871,000	1,093,000	1,231,000	1,696,000	1,381,000
Paraffin	488,000	612,000	874,000	1,324,000	1,243,000
Acetate of calcium	761,000	777,000	841,000	1,055,000	1,163,000
Apples, fresh	536,000	585,000	922,000	1,052,000	1,068,000
Cash registers, speedometers, automatic scales	954,000	1,016,000	1,095,000	964,000	1,015,000
Oils of camphor, juniper, rosemary, and other volatile oils	251,000	549,000	561,000	1,154,000	1,014,000
Cotton waste	300,000	449,000	371,000	623,000	991,000
Typewriters and calculating machines	743,000	977,000	1,178,000	1,178,000	972,000
Goat and kid leather, dressed	1,102,000	1,253,000	1,502,000	1,002,000	958,000
Tin	33,000	60,000	134,000	681,000	906,000
Peaches and apricots, dried	519,000	601,000	638,000	1,102,000	889,000
Cedar wood	1,056,000	923,000	988,000	927,000	885,000
Oak wood	594,000	615,000	779,000	1,171,000	876,000

URUGUAY.

Total imports	$8,097,000	$6,798,000	$8,427,000	$11,972,000	$10,294,000
Wool, raw	2,366,000	1,637,000	3,979,000	5,413,000	4,497,000
Meat extract	1,734,000	1,381,000	1,330,000	2,123,000	2,573,000
Cattle hides	2,793,000	2,970,000	2,483,000	3,295,000	2,184,000
Linseed	276,000	1,000	27,000	294,000	376,000
Intestines, stomachs, and bladders of animals	117,000	201,000	208,000	263,000	237,000
Lamb and sheep skins	160,000	96,000	63,000	39,000	94,000

VENEZUELA.

Total imports	$3,585,000	$3,771,000	$3,974,000	$4,736,000	$4,913,000
Coffee	1,472,000	955,000	1,171,000	1,773,000	1,807,000
Balata gum	576,000	898,000	941,000	832,000	1,184,000
Cocoa	551,000	668,000	716,000	823,000	700,000
Cattle hides	293,000	393,000	302,000	225,000	282,000
Divi-divi	144,000	184,000	153,000	241,000	243,000
Medicinal plants	46,000	62,000	74,000	154,000	159,000
India rubber	279,000	432,000	382,000	324,000	131,000
Egrets	56,000	36,000	44,000	95,000	108,000

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EXPORT TRADE.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IN GERMAN EXPORT TRADE, IN ORDER OF THEIR IMPORTANCE, 1909 TO 1913.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Machinery of all kinds (not including electrical), and parts of	$91,480,000	$109,455,000	$ 129,566,000	$150,014,000	$161,904,000
Iron and steel and manufactures of	83,902,000	99,721,000	124,305,000	138,257,000	155,237,000
Coal not specially mentioned	74,487,000	76,954,000	87,580,000	103,904,000	122,908,000
Cotton fabrics	76,473,000	86,776,000	92,801,000	100,351,000	106,267,000
Woolen fabrics	60,779,000	62,631,000	62,444,000	60,314,000	64,463,000
Sugar	48,951,000	46,282,000	50,122,000	31,070,000	63,004,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	47,135,000	51,172,000	53,600,000	55,266,000	62,539,000
Furskins	37,665,000	45,923,000	40,568,000	50,327,000	53,644,000
Malleable iron in bars	23,012,000	27,090,000	29,552,000	39,505,000	48,702,000
Silk fabrics	39,209,000	43,963,000	46,054,000	45,424,000	48,176,000
Coke	16,766,000	20,202,000	22,865,000	30,095,000	34,917,000
Aniline and other coal-tar dyes	28,007,000	29,938,000	27,729,000	31,836,000	33,815,000
Rye	21,976,000	26,600,000	26,076,000	29,859,000	31,634,000
Clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles	20,883,000	24,707,000	26,787,000	28,164,000	31,407,000
Copper and alloys, manufactures of	16,305,000	20,109,000	22,412,000	25,729,000	31,129,000
Upper leather for boots, shoes, slippers	19,486,000	20,446,000	22,721,000	25,994,000	27,255,000
Leather, manufactures of	17,673,000	18,693,000	19,431,000	23,353,000	27,187,000
Toys and Christmas-tree decorations	18,104,000	20,498,000	21,560,000	21,960,000	24,594,000
Sheets and plates, iron	12,310,600	13,157,000	15,816,000	18,400,000	24,455,000
Oats	9,953,000	14,488,000	10,243,000	14,744,000	22,160,000
Woolen yarn	14,331,000	18,450,000	20,967,000	20,039,000	21,573,000
Wheat	9,361,000	12,265,000	13,171,000	15,097,000	20,850,000
Iron tubes, rolled or drawn	8,605,000	8,415,000	12,087,000	15,979,000	20,037,000
Cattle and buffalo hides	13,458,000	15,767,000	14,014,000	16,864,000	19,363,000
Iron wire	12,406,000	14,013,000	15,245,000	16,567,000	18,146,000
Books, maps, sheet music	14,625,000	14,815,000	15,304,000	15,705,000	17,677,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, electrolysis	4,900,000	6,749,000	7,697,000	10,076,000	17,623,000
Rails for railways, sleepers, fishplates, and bedplates	12,111,000	17,128,000	16,289,000	19,010,000	17,536,000
Passenger automobiles	4,066,000	6,931,000	10,099,000	15,483,000	16,897,000
Pig iron and nonmalleable iron alloys	6,787,000	10,709,000	12,473,000	17,348,000	15,897,000
Blooms, billets, puddled bars, ingots	9,957,000	10,708,000	12,655,000	14,805,000	15,534,000
Potash salts, abraum salts	4,618,000	7,028,000	8,062,000	11,071,000	15,152,000
Hollow glass	9,858,000	11,296,000	12,105,000	12,723,000	14,978,000
Cotton yarn and twist	11,646,000	13,035,000	14,087,000	15,267,000	14,533,000
Chloride of potash	7,464,000	9,326,000	11,757,000	10,209,000	13,871,000
Wares of soft india rubber, except tires	7,740,000	9,851,000	10,453,000	11,255,000	13,697,000
Electric dynamos, motors, transformers	7,197,000	9,216,000	11,176,000	12,207,000	13,455,000
Cotton, raw	12,982,000	14,737,000	11,888,000	12,576,000	13,329,000
Pianos, organs, and parts of	9,239,000	10,522,000	12,361,000	12,717,000	13,205,000
Zinc, crude and scrap	8,683,000	9,632,000	9,503,000	12,518,000	13,053,000
Indigo	9,394,000	9,428,000	9,956,000	10,761,000	12,691,000
Margarin and vegetable tallow	91,000	1,883,000	3,791,000	8,519,000	12,110,000
Chinaware (except insulators)	9,375,000	10,213,000	11,238,000	11,308,000	12,039,000
Sheep's wool, raw	10,467,000	10,309,000	9,626,000	11,430,000	11,816,000
Electric incandescent lamps	8,667,000	11,786,000	10,907,000	11,991,000	11,451,000
Wool and other animal hair, carded, combed	9,786,000	10,716,000	11,021,000	11,300,000	11,331,000
Coal briquets	5,231,000	6,570,000	8,152,000	8,980,000	10,655,000
Wheat flour	10,745,000	10,286,000	8,810,000	9,429,000	10,521,000
Rice, polished	7,476,000	7,775,000	9,830,000	10,044,000	10,315,000
Rye flour	4,390,000	6,215,000	5,528,000	7,012,000	9,379,000
Electric cables	11,187,000	11,277,000	7,470,000	7,679,000	9,346,000
Oil cake and meal	6,635,000	6,634,000	7,066,000	8,106,000	9,186,000
Cement	4,748,000	5,392,000	6,319,000	8,063,000	8,966,000
India rubber, gutta-percha, and balata gum	7,545,000	11,658,000	9,475,000	10,306,000	6,672,000
Hops	4,536,000	5,409,000	7,521,000	7,958,000	5,606,000
All other articles	504,549,000	564,020,000	618,908,000	676,750,000	749,422,000
Total	1,569,412,000	1,778,969,000	1,929,243,000	2,131,718,000	2,403,311,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913.

ARGENTINA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$41,739,000	$57,160,000	$50,898,000	$56,980,000	$63,289,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	1,386,000	1,384,000	1,527,000	1,572,000	2,370,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	1,950,000	2,285,000	1,865,000	1,768,000	2,028,000
Cotton stockings and socks	935,000	1,274,000	1,336,000	1,058,000	1,945,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	1,675,000	1,712,000	1,318,000	1,409,000	1,818,000
Rails for railways	1,274,000	2,719,000	2,327,000	1,131,000	1,743,000
Electric cables	1,033,000	1,290,000	852,000	657,000	1,512,000
Steam locomotives and tenders	1,043,000	1,279,000	1,381,000	366,000	1,502,000
Galvanized-iron wire	1,505,000	1,405,000	1,732,000	1,157,000	1,501,000
Passenger automobiles	76,000	247,000	589,000	1,480,000	1,228,000
Wares of malleable cast iron, railway-track appliances, etc.	362,000	1,303,000	2,199,000	2,130,000	1,190,000
Printing paper	736,000	857,000	874,000	829,000	1,020,000
Girders, malleable-iron	711,000	1,260,000	1,386,000	1,366,000	886,000
Sheet iron of all kinds	714,000	644,000	811,000	544,000	854,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	265,000	536,000	662,000	726,000	822,000
Pianos	608,000	792,000	764,000	650,000	769,000
Toys	535,000	667,000	694,000	556,000	741,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	224,000	392,000	715,000	1,131,000	740,000
Sugar, lump and granular	35,000	942,000	480,000	476,000	714,000
Gold, articles of	1,306,000	752,000	581,000	714,000	710,000
Sugar, unrefined	947,000	791,000	333,000	1,286,000	690,000
Tire covers for automobiles and cycles				472,000	609,000
Structural iron (except bridges)	149,000	192,000	437,000	520,000	581,000
Cement	165,000	308,000	377,000	246,000	542,000
Cotton lace	353,000	412,000	339,000	443,000	537,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rough	146,000	184,000	315,000	481,000	533,000
Cutlery, fine (knives, scissors, razors, etc.)	258,000	453,000	511,000	370,000	516,000
Kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	37,000	412,000	533,000	402,000	499,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	229,000	422,000	392,000	435,000	476,000
Woolen clothing for women and girls	118,000	256,000	280,000	296,000	461,000
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	182,000	187,000	286,000	408,000	458,000
Hollow glass, not molded, etc., of a natural color	463,000	224,000	203,000	220,000	450,000
Electric incandescent lamps	345,000	695,000	417,000	391,000	448,000
Kitchen utensils, etc., cast-brass	252,000	390,000	448,000	363,000	441,000
Colored paper; varnished paper	243,000	204,000	188,000	327,000	437,000
Stoves, boilers, kitchen utensils, bath-tubs, and other cast-iron wares	196,000	257,000	477,000	376,000	413,000
Electric meters; registers	117,000	174,000	257,000	268,000	409,000
Metal-working machinery	382,000	471,000	426,000	423,000	398,000
Silk trimmings	444,000	412,000	377,000	419,000	357,000
Woolen yarn for retail trade	153,000	149,000	209,000	270,000	340,000
Records and cylinders for talking machines	71,000	158,000	204,000	171,000	314,000
Freight cars	98,000	164,000	205,000	177,000	321,000
Cotton tissues, dressed, bleached	234,000	253,000	268,000	290,000	316,000
Articles of plated silver	177,000	234,000	262,000	292,000	314,000
Knitted wares of wool, cut or shaped (excluding gloves and underclothing)	95,000	166,000	223,000	203,000	308,000
Sewing machines, attached to stands or to be driven by motors	203,000	301,000	285,000	228,000	304,000
Copper, tombac, and brass wares, varnished	185,000	213,000	270,000	264,000	298,000
India-rubber tubing				261,000	296,000
Wire of base metals, coated or covered	131,000	220,000	270,000	456,000	291,000
Wearing apparel, cotton, for women and girls	36,000	148,000	180,000	198,000	284,000
Upper leather	55,000	105,000	122,000	274,000	282,000
Close-woven tissues, partly of silk	272,000	302,000	264,000	245,000	277,000
Cotton underwear	51,000	131,000	165,000	180,000	276,000
Bridges of malleable iron, and parts of	67,000	247,000	238,000	242,000	276,000
Wall and standing clocks	242,000	193,000	215,000	235,000	275,000
Rice, polished	109,000	140,000	177,000	55,000	273,000
Iron wire, polished, lacquered, or coated (except galvanized)	175,000	239,000	134,000	151,000	263,000
Locks and keys	186,000	230,000	285,000	263,000	261,000
Tartaric acid	188,000	122,000	299,000	251,000	260,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$182,618,000	$195,538,000	$218,428,000	$246,409,000	$262,950,000
Coal	29,428,000	27,063,000	29,892,000	33,051,000	37,864,000
Merino tops	5,385,000	5,343,000	5,762,000	6,773,000	7,140,000
Cotton, raw	5,543,000	6,322,000	5,499,000	6,332,000	6,555,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	4,129,000	4,646,000	4,373,000	5,832,000	6,192,000
Books	5,299,000	4,962,000	4,696,000	5,088,000	6,145,000
Coke	3,834,000	3,896,000	4,182,000	4,890,000	5,399,000
Upper leather	3,111,000	4,271,000	4,425,000	4,034,000	4,764,000
Cattle hides, raw	1,663,000	2,920,000	3,473,000	3,599,000	3,976,000
Coal-tar dyes	2,815,000	2,843,000	2,773,000	2,990,000	2,974,000
Flax	1,654,000	1,649,000	1,553,000	2,551,000	2,965,000
Zinc, crude	2,196,000	2,185,000	2,915,000	3,452,000	2,955,000
Metal-working machinery	2,223,000	2,320,000	2,285,000	2,782,000	2,961,000
Boots and shoes, leather	235,000	381,000	741,000	1,529,000	2,543,000
Thomas meal	1,316,000	1,294,000	1,469,000	2,429,000	2,402,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lamps, stoves, railway-track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	687,000	872,000	1,320,000	1,765,000	2,147,000
Pig iron; nonmalleable iron alloys	601,000	573,000	689,000	1,639,000	1,994,000
Sugar-beet seed	1,681,000	1,560,000	2,647,000	1,530,000	1,972,000
Passenger automobiles	746,000	1,086,000	1,211,000	1,699,000	1,720,000
Palm-nut oil	1,424,000	1,341,000	1,189,000	1,157,000	1,716,000
Copper, crude	1,206,000	1,346,000	1,346,000	1,927,000	1,538,000
Woolen suitings	1,471,000	1,616,000	1,853,000	1,586,000	1,546,000
Waste of spun cotton	784,000	1,323,000	1,552,000	1,349,000	1,542,000
Machinery, not specially mentioned	721,000	1,202,000	1,465,000	1,603,000	1,512,000
Lead, crude and scrap	1,008,000	751,000	963,000	1,746,000	1,467,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	521,000	842,000	1,172,000	1,350,000	1,474,000
Merino wool, washed after shearing	280,000	329,000	361,000	415,000	341,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc	466,000	603,000	733,000	1,140,000	1,430,000
Superphosphates	688,000	894,000	1,174,000	1,192,000	1,374,000
Celluloid and similar materials	817,000	1,095,000	1,189,000	1,169,000	1,354,000
Raw silk, dyed	626,000	703,000	1,034,000	1,164,000	1,308,000
Stoves, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	447,000	439,000	918,000	1,176,000	1,250,000
Blooms, billets, puddled bars, ingots	307,000	282,000	332,000	1,420,000	1,237,000
Potash salts; abraum salts	267,000	294,000	352,000	1,192,000	1,408,000
Scrap iron; old iron	632,000	496,000	867,000	1,328,000	1,184,000
Crossbred wool, washed after shearing	914,000	876,000	1,149,000	1,246,000	1,121,000
Worsted yarn, bleached, dyed, printed, of two threads	783,000	1,116,000	1,388,000	1,358,000	1,088,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	671,000	652,000	952,000	930,000	1,013,000
Electric incandescent lamps	603,000	800,000	612,000	955,000	1,079,000
Gold, articles of	1,005,000	461,000	467,000	810,000	1,080,000
Toys and Christmas-tree decorations	614,000	715,000	875,000	948,000	1,039,000
Nails	1,223,000	1,143,000	1,200,000	1,135,000	1,002,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	462,000	656,000	675,000	765,000	933,000
Prepared medicaments; proprietary medicines	332,000	376,000	510,000	681,000	929,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	507,000	575,000	672,000	661,000	914,000
Paintings	749,000	843,000	998,000	894,000	873,000
Films, combs, buttons, etc., celluloid	111,000	104,000	272,000	390,000	884,000
Waste of bleached, etc., wool	797,000	1,051,000	920,000	801,000	841,000
Silk and woolen rags; cloth list	944,000	984,000	1,156,000	890,000	828,000
Crossbred wool, combed	1,984,000	2,731,000	2,422,000	1,317,000	810,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	360,000	320,000	446,000	1,079,000	796,000
Picture postcards	333,000	469,000	535,000	643,000	784,000

AUSTRALIA.

Total exports	$13,893,000	$15,064,000	$18,976,000	$20,844,000	$21,074,000
Iron wire, rolled or drawn	1,691,000	1,834,000	1,415,000	1,246,000	1,401,000
Pianos	1,014,000	1,243,000	1,834,000	1,770,000	1,321,000
Railway wheels, axles, parts of wheels	76,000	132,000	521,000	949,000	741,000
India-rubber tires and tire covers				779,000	743,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	167,000	336,000	465,000	507,000	720,000
Cotton stockings and socks	478,000	456,000	455,000	554,000	654,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	123,000	122,000	182,000	215,000	590,000
Beer in bottles	234,000	261,000	368,000	496,000	525,000
Plaited wire, wire gauze, baskets, etc	875,000	831,000	748,000	700,000	501,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

AUSTRALIA—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Cement	$87,000	$159,000	$292,000	$637,000	$511,000
Toys	363,000	433,000	517,000	500,000	484,000
Gloves and hair nets, cotton	176,000	185,000	290,000	428,000	362,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	150,000	136,000	262,000	343,000	341,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	324,000	433,000	367,000	327,000	301,000
Dynamite, blasting powder	366,000	407,000	322,000	280,000	284,000
Sheet iron, rough, 5 millimeters or more in thickness	138,000	131,000	216,000	135,000	278,000
Tableware, china	141,000	223,000	276,000	198,000	235,000
Kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	121,000	141,000	280,000	286,000	219,000
Woolen tissues	247,000	174,000	194,000	192,000	208,000
Wire of base metals, coated or covered	42,000	48,000	65,000	48,000	213,000
Varnished leather	114,000	189,000	216,000	223,000	183,000
Sheet india rubber, combined with flexible material	28,000	18,000	46,000	156,000	181,000
Sewing machines attached to stands, or to be driven by motors	61,000	97,000	135,000	138,000	177,000
Passenger automobiles	23,000	67,000	117,000	177,000	159,000
Rails for railways	141,000	124,000	476,000	260,000	157,000
Milk cans, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	74,000	140,000	225,000	146,000	148,000
Cotton underwear	82,000	124,000	156,000	181,000	146,000
Electric cables	24,000	23,000	188,000	60,000	140,000
Sheet iron, rough, under 5 millimeters in thickness	76,000	63,000	130,000	78,000	136,000
Sulphate of potassium	62,000	72,000	75,000	97,000	127,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk	43,000	79,000	113,000	135,000	125,000
Lamp chimneys	59,000	60,000	90,000	87,000	101,000

BELGIUM.

Total exports	$82,998,000	$92,984,000	$98,219,000	$117,402,000	$131,137,000
Coal	10,450,000	11,723,000	14,146,000	18,991,000	21,645,000
Pig iron and nonmalleable iron alloys	3,614,000	6,297,000	6,424,000	7,447,000	5,388,000
Coke	824,000	1,551,000	2,066,000	3,705,000	4,714,000
Rye	943,000	1,988,000	1,826,000	2,294,000	3,123,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	1,891,000	1,901,000	1,433,000	2,110,000	2,481,000
Wheat	2,039,00	1,210,000	1,243,000	1,088,000	2,046,000
Oats	158,000	317,000	191,000	979,000	2,003,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	967,000	1,182,000	931,000	1,563,000	1,857,000
Coal briquets	497,000	736,000	751,000	1,146,000	1,801,000
Metal-working machinery	702,000	855,000	844,000	967,000	1,571,000
Woolen tissues	1,535,000	1,475,000	1,293,000	1,311,000	1,465,000
Iron wire, rolled, not polished	1,026,000	1,326,000	1,311,000	1,751,000	1,442,000
Blooms, billets, puddled bars, ingots	1,533,000	1,428,000	1,391,000	1,622,000	1,458,000
Coal-tar dyes	853,000	842,000	1,055,000	1,203,000	1,408,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	737,000	878,000	1,122,000	1,242,000	1,326,000
Iron ores	1,315,000	1,377,000	1,299,000	1,103,000	1,221,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc	342,000	382,000	525,000	714,000	1,108,000
Stoves, boilers, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, lamps, and other cast-iron wares	503,000	352,000	665,000	775,000	1,085,000
Hops	906,000	1,200,000	1,159,000	1,352,000	1,054,000
Electric cables	1,433,000	1,241,000	601,000	799,000	1,012,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	715,000	889,000	835,000	980,000	1,002,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	572,000	727,000	687,000	860,000	962,000
Cattle hides, raw	1,327,000	1,089,000	751,000	1,255,000	951,000
Beer in barrels	468,000	674,000	691,000	782,000	945,000
Sulphate of ammonia	1,170,000	1,643,000	1,294,000	1,153,000	910,000
Skins of hares and rabbits, raw	426,000	451,000	432,000	582,000	890,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn, rough	362,000	440,000	593,000	614,000	822,000
Sheet iron, rough, 5 millimeters or more in thickness	355,000	446,000	260,000	404,000	802,000
Passenger automobiles	132,000	474,000	293,000	818,000	769,000
Upper leather	695,000	585,000	567,000	617,000	725,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	416,000	445,000	600,000	547,000	660,000
Waste of spun cotton	261,000	457,000	468,000	624,000	645,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

BELGIUM—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Packing paper	$497,000	$521,000	$533,000	$584,000	$637,000
Oil cake and meal	118,000	180,000	352,000	573,000	641,000
Metalloids, acids, salts, not specially mentioned	430,000	242,000	451,000	546,000	621,000
Machinery, not specially mentioned	201,000	240,000	380,000	514,000	630,000
Toys	431,000	433,000	457,000	614,000	566,000
Electric incandescent lamps	285,000	375,000	469,000	513,000	566,000
Caustic potash	590,000	669,000	426,000	352,000	551,000
Mineral waters	512,000	560,000	556,000	574,000	496,000
Chloride of potash	416,000	327,000	370,000	459,000	508,000
Tin, crude	800,000	487,000	564,000	228,000	488,000
Slag and waste from smelting works	25,000	50,000	276,000	226,000	502,000
Photographic paper, raw; felt paper; tapestry paper	148,000	304,000	481,000	466,000	482,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	243,000	323,000	250,000	345,000	485,000
Parts of cycles	365,000	667,000	699,000	346,000	475,000
Sewing machines attached to stands or to be driven by motors	252,000	285,000	366,000	509,000	456,000
Chemically prepared wood pulp, straw, esparto, and other fibrous materials	531,000	437,000	507,000	423,000	443,000
Close-woven tissues partly of silk, not specially mentioned (except ribbons)	648,000	525,000	397,000	366,000	441,000

BOLIVIA.

Total exports	$1,312,000	$1,757,000	$2,263,000	$2,928,000	$2,851,000
Machinery	46,000	99,000	124,000	176,000	345,000
Woolen tissues	168,000	190,000	288,000	296,000	266,000
Rails, sleepers, fishplates, bedplates	0	4,000	26,000	17,000	171,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	122,000	145,000	218,000	197,000	147,000
Clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles	57,000	74,000	85,000	129,000	126,000
Leather, and manufactures of	99,000	67,000	113,000	152,000	124,000
Sugar, in blocks, sticks, cubes	50,000	55,000	112,000	60,000	106,000
Iron tubes, rolled or drawn (except spiral pipes)	1,000	3,000	.....	32,000	99,000
Cotton stockings and socks	46,000	50,000	53,000	49,000	63,000
Freight cars	15,000	3,000	5,000	9,000	60,000
Electrotechnical products	22,000	25,000	38,000	57,000	60,000

BRAZIL.

Total exports	$21,854,000	$28,970,000	$36,185,000	$45,894,000	$47,546,000
Small arms	460,000	239,000	39,000	881,000	1,800,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	1,043,000	1,700,000	2,236,000	1,739,000	1,589,000
Cement	697,000	705,000	904,000	1,339,000	1,423,000
Lanterns, stoves, tubes, switch rails, etc., of malleable iron, worked	413,000	589,000	421,000	625,000	1,331,000
Passenger automobiles	34,000	298,000	640,000	1,586,000	857,000
Rails for railways	274,000	193,000	364,000	739,000	851,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	227,000	163,000	292,000	351,000	733,000
Sewing machines, to be worked by hand, without stands; top parts	225,000	461,000	664,000	769,000	663,000
Structural iron (except bridges)	260,000	430,000	305,000	624,000	659,000
Steam locomotives and tenders	200,000	313,000	148,000	1,273,000	645,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	103,000	251,000	413,000	808,000	628,000
Upper leather	221,000	274,000	391,000	762,000	566,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	213,000	360,000	595,000	575,000	529,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	401,000	578,000	611,000	607,000	515,000
Printing paper	440,000	456,000	429,000	395,000	496,000
Cutlery, fine	177,000	407,000	427,000	394,000	493,000
Commercial automobiles	46,000	106,000	148,000	392,000	494,000
Cotton stockings and socks	161,000	422,000	589,000	524,000	481,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn, worked	264,000	176,000	79,000	383,000	469,000
Barbed wire; hooks and cramps of wire	354,000	415,000	526,000	304,000	462,000
Iron wire, drawn, not polished	421,000	329,000	346,000	399,000	453,000
Metal-working machinery	140,000	194,000	144,000	352,000	409,000
Toys	199,000	276,000	414,000	407,000	407,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

BRAZIL—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Electric incandescent lamps	$177,000	$243,000	$431,000	$443,000	$403,000
Aniline and other coal-tar dyes	337,000	392,000	301,000	427,000	400,000
Goat and kid skin, dressed	518,000	412,000	487,000	336,000	396,000
Stoves, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	144,000	211,000	283,000	354,000	392,000
Pianos	208,000	264,000	388,000	429,000	379,000
Calf skin, varnished	82,000	193,000	253,000	301,000	377,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	110,000	172,000	187,000	366,000	336,000
Kitchen utensils, etc., cast-brass	149,000	223,000	217,000	246,000	303,000
Wood-working machinery	83,000	113,000	178,000	371,000	300,000
Galvanized-iron wire	196,000	286,000	353,000	393,000	295,000
Writing paper	232,000	234,000	275,000	267,000	292,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	153,000	244,000	231,000	260,000	285,000
Articles of plated silver	108,000	171,000	218,000	270,000	283,000
Sheep and lamb skin, dressed	87,000	189,000	198,000	174,000	282,000
Girders, malleable-iron	100,000	119,000	220,000	241,000	276,000
Rice, polished	352,000	466,000	353,000	388,000	268,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	122,000	234,000	233,000	254,000	262,000
Steam locomobiles (except plow tractors)	137,000	189,000	545,000	578,000	263,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rough	150,000	180,000	410,000	251,000	260,000
Tire covers, rubber	.....	.....	.....	191,000	257,000
Malt	74,000	134,000	200,000	238,000	250,000

BRITISH INDIA.

Total exports	$18,759,000	$21,370,000	$23,677,000	$25,585,000	$35,876,000
Rods, sheets, plates, of brass, tombac	1,768,000	1,955,000	1,994,000	1,892,000	3,423,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	1,176,000	1,043,000	1,311,000	900,000	2,545,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	491,000	629,000	884,000	1,517,000	2,411,000
Woolen tissues	971,000	1,495,000	2,222,000	1,872,000	2,013,000
Coal-tar dyes	1,301,000	1,540,000	1,402,000	1,782,000	1,941,000
Sheet iron, rough	1,698,000	519,000	572,000	704,000	993,000
Alizarin red	653,000	562,000	630,000	872,000	764,000
Railway wheels, parts of, and axles	21,000	73,000	98,000	287,000	740,000
Cotton underwear	279,000	222,000	342,000	496,000	650,000
Lubricating oils, mineral	19,000	278,000	260,000	397,000	593,000
Velvet and plush and similar tissues, partly of silk (except ribbons)	349,000	264,000	240,000	345,000	520,000
Cotton velvet, cut, dyed, etc	146,000	195,000	208,000	271,000	502,000
Girders, malleable-iron	240,000	286,000	351,000	427,000	486,000
Featherstitch embroidery	134,000	233,000	373,000	282,000	396,000
Rods, sheets, and plates, copper	73,000	130,000	138,000	47,000	409,000
Beer in bottles	257,000	291,000	333,000	374,000	377,000
Cutlery, fine	231,000	257,000	271,000	281,000	381,000
Railway-track appurtenances, stoves, lanterns, and other wares of malleable iron	242,000	475,000	387,000	256,000	371,000
Rails for railways	131,000	97,000	232,000	183,000	370,000
Locks and keys	269,000	344,000	233,000	253,000	351,000
Umbrella frames	324,000	397,000	307,000	261,000	329,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	25,000	7,000	20,000	20,000	328,000
Indigo	126,000	310,000	264,000	316,000	298,000
Toys	260,000	273,000	296,000	249,000	297,000
Cotton tissues not specially mentioned	30,000	32,000	39,000	160,000	267,000
Aluminum, hammered, shaped	17,000	31,000	144,000	234,000	248,000
Condensed milk	59,000	37,000	36,000	57,000	243,000
Imitation gold and silver thread, and wares thereof	133,000	185,000	262,000	227,000	204,000
Worsted yarn, bleached, dyed, etc., of 4 or more threads	141,000	208,000	187,000	205,000	216,000
Wares of malleable iron, not specially mentioned, rough (except parts of machinery)	26,000	2,000	14,000	121,000	202,000
Sugar in crystals	145,000	.....	8,000	.....	217,000
Cotton stockings	186,000	134,000	183,000	150,000	188,000
Silk trimmings; chenille	80,000	147,000	107,000	114,000	190,000
Household and kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	133,000	119,000	142,000	164,000	160,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	81,000	117,000	114,000	142,000	171,000
Wire nails	147,000	158,000	132,000	106,000	171,000
Cement	58,000	121,000	34,000	94,000	169,000
Ivory, raw, for carving	88,000	74,000	123,000	147,000	166,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$9,056,000	$12,846,000	$11,310,000	$10,597,000	$11,172,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	695,000	802,000	925,000	982,000	786,000
Cyanide of potassium; cyanide of sodium	805,000	695,000	753,000	692,000	516,000
Steam and gas turbines, combined with pumps, etc	69,000	512,000	572,000	229,000	457,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	45,000	110,000	182,000	369,000	439,000
Pianos	153,000	250,000	275,000	335,000	332,000
Sheet zinc, rough	174,000	338,000	335,000	312,000	340,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	426,000	1,405,000	732,000	408,000	296,000
Iron wire	183,000	226,000	206,000	129,000	293,000
Electric cables	423,000	548,000	79,000	60,000	256,000
Rails for railways	363,000	386,000	552,000	535,000	246,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	49,000	99,000	85,000	119,000	188,000
Wares of malleable iron, rough (except parts of machinery)	29,000	45,000	51,000	41,000	183,000
Barbed wire; cramps and loops of wire	49,000	124,000	239,000	57,000	178,000
Passenger automobiles	55,000	89,000	63,000	45,000	159,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	172,000	832,000	251,000	195,000	148,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	103,000	144,000	164,000	179,000	153,000
Pitch torches, quick matches, fuses, etc	238,000	185,000	159,000	162,000	149,000
Toys	97,000	127,000	153,000	136,000	149,000
Electric incandescent lamps	72,000	81,000	144,000	138,000	137,000
Railway sleepers, iron	325,000	381,000	62,000	78,000	134,000
Freight cars	142,000	240,000	84,000	133,000	109,000
Woolen suitings	59,000	71,000	106,000	137,000	123,000
Tire covers				89,000	122,000
Steel flasks, lanterns, lamps, stoves, track appurtenances, and other iron wares	215,000	406,000	516,000	86,000	116,000
Freight cars	142,000	240,000	84,000	133,000	109,000
Wire of base metals, coated or covered	23,000	35,000	36,000	13,000	99,000
Tableware, china	64,000	71,000	73,000	83,000	97,000
Sewing machines to be worked by hand, without stands; tops, parts	40,000	66,000	77,000	86,000	91,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	19,000	29,000	42,000	47,000	86,000
Guncotton	150,000	62,000	95,000	104,000	85,000
Concertinas	32,000	50,000	59,000	78,000	84,000
Glycerin, refined	186,000	32,000	5,000	100,000	81,000
Iron plows	109,000	94,000	91,000	104,000	79,000
Clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles	67,000	45,000	62,000	72,000	75,000
Cutlery, fine	39,000	64,000	71,000	59,000	70,000
Cotton underwear	31,000	32,000	51,000	45,000	60,000
Rice, polished	40,000	39,000	74,000	50,000	58,000
Structural iron (except bridges)	196,000	216,000	83,000	83,000	57,000
Superphosphates	1,000	3,000	13,000	43,000	56,000
Cotton stockings and socks	23,000	25,000	30,000	41,000	55,000
Mouth organs	18,000	41,000	49,000	65,000	55,000
Cartridges, filled	17,000	20,000	31,000	50,000	52,000
Bolts for fishplates and sleepers, cross-tie bars, clips	8,000	14,000	11,000	58,000	51,000

BRITISH WEST AFRICA.

Total exports	**$2,780,000**	**$3,613,000**	**$3,254,000**	**$3,610,000**	**$3,979,000**
Arrack, rum, cognac, in bottles	**412,000**	**577,000**	**540,000**	**603,000**	**595,000**
Rice, polished	**70,000**	**167,000**	**245,000**	**361,000**	**201,000**
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors					
Beet sugar, refined	**109,000**	**157,000**	**171,000**	**185,000**	**292,000**
Perfumery and cosmetics	**267,000**	**389,000**	**225,000**	**185,000**	**187,000**
Beer in bottles	**62,000**	**66,000**	**84,000**	**114,000**	**124,000**
Scythes, sickles, feed cutters	**400,000**	**420,000**	**144,000**	**110,000**	**111,000**
Velvet, plush, and similar tissues, partly of silk	**33,000**	**50,000**	**84,000**	**51,000**	**98,000**
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	**103,000**	**141,000**	**129,000**	**99,000**	**96,000**
Machinery	**69,000**	**40,000**	**45,000**	**59,000**	**82,000**
Steel flasks, lamps, railway-track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	**36,000**	**98,000**	**86,000**	**71,000**	**73,000**

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

BULGARIA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$4,462,000	$4,519,000	$5,697,000	$6,803,000	$7,219,000
Steam locomotives	351,000	99,000	357,000	25,000	897,000
Cartridges, filled	87,000	60,000	1,000	189,000	867,000
Sugar machinery	.....	1,000	.....	2,000	397,000
Primers; filled percussion caps	30,000	1,000	2,000	95,000	337,000
Freight cars	165,000	246,000	487,000	83,000	268,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	358,000	430,000	450,000	435,000	258,000
Steel flasks, lamps, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	73,000	114,000	122,000	143,000	256,000
Cartridge shells, copper; primers, not filled	1,000	16,000	.....	6,000	164,000
Fixed combustion or explosive motors	61,000	52,000	31,000	65,000	150,000
Gunpowder	71,000	36,000	4,000	213,000	140,000
Upper leather	35,000	95,000	89,000	60,000	131,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	244,000	181,000	269,000	257,000	100,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	62,000	45,000	93,000	128,000	82,000
Passenger automobiles	16,000	5,000	8,000	100,000	75,000
Coal-tar dyes	60,000	88,000	98,000	102,000	73,000
Rails for railways	1,000	15,000	6,000	6,000	62,000
Rice, polished	.....	1,000	6,000	3,000	60,000
Prepared medicaments; proprietary medicines	18,000	35,000	38,000	32,000	57,000
Machinery, not specially mentioned	18,000	25,000	30,000	44,000	55,000
Copper wire	1,000	26,000	39,000	12,000	52,000

CANADA.

Total exports	$5,907,000	$8,708,000	$10,203,000	$12,912,000	$14,408,000
Girders, malleable-iron	94,000	289,000	414,000	293,000	664,000
Fur skins, raw	565,000	734,000	801,000	1,189,000	637,000
Sugar, unrefined	.....	388,000	569,000	.....	630,000
Cotton stockings and socks	312,000	550,000	560,000	570,000	592,000
Railway wheels, axles, parts of	349,000	437,000	411,000	428,000	583,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	111,000	173,000	200,000	382,000	393,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	117,000	131,000	229,000	306,000	414,000
Toys	197,000	318,000	307,000	392,000	374,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	244,000	373,000	311,000	468,000	365,000
Woolen clothing for women and girls	181,000	248,000	298,000	422,000	360,000
Cutlery, fine	186,000	156,000	145,000	341,000	340,000
Malleable iron in bars	105,000	151,000	153,000	52,000	261,000
Cotton lace	82,000	78,000	107,000	259,000	219,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk	38,000	58,000	62,000	166,000	208,000
Cotton gloves and hair nets	94,000	148,000	126,000	155,000	199,000
Coal-tar dyes	148,000	193,000	151,000	182,000	193,000
Silk gloves	42,000	56,000	101,000	199,000	159,000
Woolen knitted and net wares	49,000	69,000	86,000	133,000	159,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	29,000	55,000	52,000	102,000	145,000
Galvanized-iron wire	124,000	211,000	205,000	116,000	143,000
Embroidery on nonsilken foundation	59,000	87,000	178,000	214,000	134,000
Tableware, china	94,000	107,000	118,000	136,000	132,000

CEYLON.

Total exports	$687,000	$772,000	$882,000	$1,018,000	$1,196,000
Sulphate of potash	97,000	89,000	158,000	189,000	222,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	182,000	109,000	111,000	147,000	170,000
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	.....	.....	6,000	6,000	52,000
Cement	12,000	11,000	14,000	41,000	50,000
Tire covers	.....	.....	.....	15,000	39,000
Passenger automobiles	10,000	34,000	22,000	32,000	35,000
Beer in bottles	28,000	27,000	33,000	31,000	33,000
Embroidery on cotton foundation	5,000	14,000	22,000	27,000	33,000
Cotton tissues	30,000	38,000	37,000	25,000	33,000
Woolen tissues	16,000	23,000	32,000	27,000	33,000
Clothing, millinery, sewn articles	14,000	19,000	13,000	15,000	29,000
Cotton underwear	39,000	22,000	50,000	43,000	28,000
Chloride of potash	19,000	28,000	27,000	14,000	26,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

CHILE.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$13,711,000	$15,419,000	$20,324,000	$26,657,000	$23,294,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	858,000	1,254,000	1,217,000	1,153,000	1,002,000
Lanterns, lamps, stoves, tubes, switch-rails, etc., of malleable iron	141,000	260,000	219,000	2,168,000	848,000
Rails for railways	118,000	235,000	703,000	559,000	722,000
Cement	456,000	344,000	528,000	677,000	705,000
Sugar, in blocks, sticks, cubes	372,000	292,000	857,000	188,000	645,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	788,000	1,085,000	923,000	722,000	641,000
Coke	104,000	228,000	214,000	295,000	626,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes)	369,000	294,000	360,000	455,000	597,000
Steam locomotives and tenders	153,000	168,000	276,000	1,002,000	554,000
Cotton stockings and socks	473,000	573,000	579,000	491,000	473,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	242,000	231,000	444,000	361,000	421,000
Rice, polished	253,000	289,000	257,000	283,000	324,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	93,000	80,000	150,000	281,000	301,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	134,000	103,000	226,000	128,000	297,000
Cartridges, filled	8,000	8,000	5,000	2,289,000	277,000
Iron wire	254,000	204,000	188,000	142,000	253,000
Structural iron (except bridges and parts)	235,000	97,000	300,000	416,000	238,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	108,000	155,000	172,000	163,000	236,000
Freight cars	152,000	61,000	88,000	230,000	233,000
Electric incandescent lamps	79,000	169,000	180,000	188,000	227,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	114,000	164,000	310,000	323,000	217,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	82,000	133,000	138,000	817,000	188,000
Toys	99,000	124,000	179,000	178,000	182,000
Pianos	139,000	159,000	239,000	253,000	180,000

CHINA.

Total exports	$13,510,000	$15,821,000	$17,083,000	$19,446,000	$29,259,000
Indigo	1,800,000	2,280,000	3,991,000	4,469,000	6,397,000
Aniline and other coal-tar dyes not specially mentioned	1,385,000	1,550,000	2,013,000	1,961,000	4,537,000
Cartridges, filled	424,000	572,000	559,000	2,444,000	1,557,000
Railway-track appurtenances, lanterns, stoves, other wares of malleable iron	226,000	346,000	360,000	237,000	1,195,000
Silk trimmings; chenille	278,000	359,000	493,000	376,000	743,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	311,000	393,000	543,000	512,000	661,000
Sewing needles	660,000	790,000	567,000	444,000	657,000
Worsted yarn, bleached, dyed, printed, of 4 or more threads	144,000	406,000	318,000	288,000	629,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	192,000	189,000	231,000	276,000	558,000
Cotton stockings and socks	405,000	284,000	246,000	355,000	515,000
Small arms	154,000	345,000	140,000	711,000	406,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed woven in colors	73,000	138,000	138,000	246,000	361,000
Cotton underwear	21,000	68,000	117,000	163,000	270,000
Freight cars	156,000	293,000	217,000	54,000	279,000
Woolen yarn for retail trade	68,000	168,000	221,000	200,000	230,000
Electric incandescent lamps	66,000	117,000	164,000	197,000	219,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	166,000	109,000	101,000	123,000	224,000
Sheet iron, rough	41,000	36,000	32,000	64,000	217,000
Galvanized-iron wire	85,000	87,000	103,000	125,000	199,000
Steam and gas turbines, combined with other machines				136,000	174,000
Umbrella frames	55,000	44,000	45,000	86,000	178,000
Seagoing vessels					714,000
Primers, filled percussion caps, etc	3,000	13,000	8,000	29,000	212,000
Sugar, refined	64,000	51,000	79,000	73,000	179,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	31,000	45,000	81,000	68,000	177,000
Iron wire, rolled or drawn, rough	109,000	89,000	127,000	95,000	168,000
Steam locomotives	182,000	71,000	251,000	187,000	144,000
Axles, railway wheels, and parts	115,000	120,000	62,000	293,000	131,000
Wire of base metals, coated or covered	58,000	50,000	83,000	98,000	124,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	73,000	76,000	61,000	49,000	124,000
Beer	54,000	68,000	111,000	109,000	121,000
Rods, sheets, plates, of brass, tombac, etc	78,000	80,000	69,000	85,000	120,000
Woolen underwear	1,000	3,000	10,000	47,000	118,000
Wares of decorated china; tableware	30,000	41,000	44,000	41,000	118,000
Wire nails	87,000	75,000	53,000	49,000	118,000
Soaps, soap powder, etc	44,000	44,000	55,000	59,000	106,000
Wall and standing clocks	32,000	68,000	53,000	42,000	104,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

COLOMBIA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$1,450,000	$2,261,000	$2,659,000	$3,509,000	$4,?89,000
Rice, polished	167,000	252,000	421,000	569,.00	632,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	148,000	257,000	254,000	275,000	303,000
Woolen tissues (suitings etc.)	134,000	202,000	205,000	229,000	253,000
Machinery (except electrical)	30,000	65,000	56,000	124,000	155,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures	72,000	94,000	107,000	140,000	154,000
Clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles	30,000	54,000	70,000	99,000	129,000
Girders, malleable-iron	3,000	11,000	7,000	34,000	115,000
Cotton stockings and socks	46,000	83,000	81,000	80,000	113,000
Household and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	44,000	60,000	104,000	134,000	110,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	2,000	.....	1,000	1,000	106,000
Silk trimmings	28,000	44,000	50,000	77,000	97,000
Cotton lace	34,000	52,000	52,000	48,000	85,000
Electrotechnica products	19,000	16,000	32,000	34,000	73,000
Scythes, sickles, straw cutters	27,000	24,000	34,000	49,000	71,000
Fine cutlery	29,000	35,000	40,000	58,000	68,000
Leather, and manufactures of	32,000	45,000	47,000	79,000	66,000
Gold, articles of	12,000	4,000	9,000	40,000	65,000
Glass and glassware	23,000	42,000	42,000	49,000	61,000
Beer in bottles	21,000	31,000	35,000	56,000	56,000
Copper and alloys, manufactures of	21,000	30,000	39,000	58,000	56,000
Sheet iron, all sorts	9,000	19,000	10,000	10,000	50,000
Prepared medicaments; proprietary medicines	8,000	7,000	19,000	28,000	49,000
Silk ribbons	5,000	18,000	24,000	43,000	47,000
Musical instruments	15,000	19,000	27,000	38,000	46,000
Embroidery on cotton, linen, or woolen foundation	4,000	10,000	17,000	24,000	38,000
Stoneware, colored	8,000	27,000	18,000	27,000	31,000
Aluminum, manufactures of	1,000	2,000	6,000	12,000	30,000
Woolen yarn for retail trade	8,000	11,000	10,000	14,000	28,000
Toys	10,000	24,000	20,000	23,000	27,000
Lamps, railway-track appliances, and other wares of iron	10,000	23,000	41,000	52,000	26,000

COSTA RICA.

Total exports	**$487,000**	**$606,000**	**$954,000**	**$769,000**	**$697,000**
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	51,000	76,000	145,000	99,000	105,000
Rice, polished	81,000	78,000	99,000	120,000	59,000
Beer in bottles	28,000	33,000	45,000	36,000	40,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	30,000	26,000	26,000	33,000	37,000
Cotton stockings and socks	17,000	29,000	38,000	36,000	36,000
Cotton tissues dyed, printed, woven in colors	33,000	35,000	43,000	31,000	27,000
Cement	11,000	19,000	23,000	26,000	27,000
Wool, manufactures of	19,000	25,000	37,000	34,000	23,000
Machinery	27,000	12,000	36,000	12,000	21,000
Leather, and manufactures of	13,000	7,000	17,000	25,000	20,000

CUBA.

Total exports	$4,812,000	$5,314,000	$6,220,000	$6,833,000	$8,104,000
Rice, polished	1,875,000	1,881,000	2,038,000	1,902,000	2,416,000
Cotton stockings and socks	256,000	262,000	405,000	457,000	568,000
Sugar machinery	92,000	193,000	242,000	262,000	285,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	97,000	219,000	194,000	257,000	242,000
Packing paper	167,000	149,000	162,000	147,000	233,000
Cotton lace	84,000	73,000	89,000	59,000	219,000
Household and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	102,000	121,000	164,000	151,000	151,000
Passenger automobiles	16,000	5,000	18,000	15,000	139,000
Toys	87,000	126,000	99,000	85,000	137,000
Silk trimmings	70,000	92,000	83,000	128,000	122,000
Sulphate of potash	1,000	12,000	15,000	27,000	105,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

DENMARK.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$46,589,000	$53,473,000	$51,880,000	$60,498,000	$67,585,000
Rye	3,971,000	4,662,000	3,939,000	5,515,000	5,298,000
Oil cake and meal	1,138,000	1,419,000	1,658,000	1,646,000	2,281,000
Woolen tissues	2,594,000	2,625,000	2,446,000	2,405,000	2,402,000
Wheat	1,064,000	940,000	998,000	1,164,000	2,125,000
Oats	1,859,000	2,813,000	1,821,000	2,474,000	2,065,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	839,000	1,022,000	1,113,000	1,547,000	1,772,000
Wheat flour	1,444,000	1,502,000	1,463,000	1,609,000	1,447,000
Vegetable tallow; margarin		75,000	371,000	700,000	1,168,000
Coal	400,000	664,000	606,000	1,211,000	1,077,000
Cotton tissues, not specially mentioned	714,000	872,000	939,000	943,000	970,000
Copper wire	253,000	268,000	307,000	491,000	803,000
Parts of cycles	658,000	939,000	1,157,000	647,000	745,000
Sheet iron, rough, 5 millimeters or more in thickness	172,000	215,000	288,000	255,000	656,000
Peanut oil; sesame oil	127,000	186,000	342,000	508,000	653,000
Superphosphates	379,000	256,000	304,000	425,000	620,000
Passenger automobiles	140,000	252,000	376,000	363,000	625,000
Rye flour	601,000	678,000	522,000	530,000	621,000
Beet sugar	1,412,000	1,154,000	437,000	492,000	564,000
Boots and shoes, leather	462,000	432,000	437,000	475,600	543,000
Upper leather	423,000	477,000	445,000	536,000	499,000
Girders, malleable-iron	284,000	296,000	359,000	545,000	510,000
Potash salts; abraum salts	34,000	39,000	135,000	179,000	498,000
Worsted yarn	279,000	304,000	336,000	372,000	450,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	347,000	432,000	305,000	426,000	407,000
Electric incandescent lamps	301,000	337,000	311,000	264,000	396,000
Coal briquets	52,000	145,000	265,000	382,000	381,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	159,000	205,000	249,000	304,000	356,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	200,000	282,000	262,000	269,000	355,000
Cattle hides, raw	284,000	268,000	242,000	303,000	340,000
Coke	146,000	173,000	194,000	300,000	321,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	227,000	353,000	329,000	273,000	344,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn, rough	160,000	158,000	249,000	364,000	304,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	225,000	282,000	287,000	304,000	310,000
Pianos	140,000	166,000	207,000	241,000	303,000
Iron wire, rolled, not polished	196,000	172,000	192,000	291,000	284,000
Close-woven tissues of silk (except ribbons)	211,000	203,000	266,000	256,000	286,000
Cotton shirts and chemisettes	198,000	257,000	205,000	263,000	282,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	134,000	156,000	181,000	243,000	293,000
Rods, sheets, plates, of brass; tombac	113,000	263,000	144,000	226,000	274,000
Fire covers for cycles				234,000	293,000
Cotton velvet	135,000	73,000	148,000	218,000	279,000
Wire of base metals, coated or covered	109,000	137,000	153,000	191,000	282,000
Films and wares of celluloid	80,000	99,000	141,000	183,000	281,000
Silk trimmings: chenille	152,000	176,000	193,000	262,000	263,000
Stoves, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	128,000	142,000	221,000	242,000	256,000
Toys	175,000	224,000	226,000	227,000	261,000
Steam locomotives	635,000	505,000	189,000	159,000	297,000

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.

Total exports	$723,000	$719,000	$858,000	$1,216,000	$1,175,000
Rice, polished	374,000	393,000	440,000	758,000	651,000
Beer in bottles	32,000	63,000	74,000	74,000	105,000
Cotton stockings and socks	16,000	25,000	18,000	24,000	42,000
Cotton tissues	16,000	19,000	29,000	21,000	35,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	25,000	24,000	46,000	28,000	33,000
Scythes, sickles, feed cutters	33,000	25,000	28,000	32,000	26,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

DUTCH EAST INDIES.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$9,405,000	$11,854,000	$14,550,000	$17,743,000	$23,479,000
Rails for railways	278,000	674,000	723,000	1,378,000	1,271,000
Iron tubes, rolled or drawn (except spiral pipes)	174,000	303,000	283,000	503,000	1,057,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	195,000	252,000	271,000	576,000	946,000
Sulphate of ammonia	924,000	995,000	1,236,000	337,000	899,000
Freight cars	117,000	146,000	310,000	289,000	657,000
Steel flasks, lamps, railway-track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	250,000	519,000	580,000	305,000	492,000
Cement	210,000	285,000	264,000	265,000	505,000
Electric cables	79,000	279,000	127,000	140,000	483,000
Tableware, china	102,000	128,000	161,000	380,000	455,000
Beer in bottles	209,000	230,000	292,000	401,000	434,000
Steam locomotives	120,000	143,000	257,000	360,000	417,000
Indigo	115,000	186,000	281,000	305,000	347,000
Girders, malleable-iron	63,000	88,000	215,000	217,000	352,000
Stoves, lamps, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	76,000	113,000	297,000	413,000	324,000
Railway wheels, axles, parts of	88,000	124,000	152,000	152,000	335,000
Railway sleepers, iron	35,000	42,000	163,000	621,000	301,000
Sugar machinery	279,000	215,000	244,000	238,000	298,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	127,000	110,000	161,000	182,000	246,000
Woolen tissues	70,000	103,000	142,000	155,000	234,000
Passenger automobiles	55,000	126,000	217,000	293,000	219,000
Sewing machines to be worked by hand, without stands; top parts	124,000	128,000	180,000	182,000	207,000
Bolts for fishplates, crosstie bars, clips	41,000	72,000	54,000	195,000	208,000
Cotton underwear	60,000	50,000	84,000	173,000	226,000
Alizarin red	77,000	119,000	169,000	131,000	208,000
Cutlery, fine	103,000	107,000	89,000	146,000	203,000
Wire nails	111,000	162,000	159,000	120,000	222,000
Velvet, plush, and similar tissues, partly of silk (except ribbons)	93,000	114,000	109,000	120,000	185,000
Household and kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	141,000	121,000	102,000	110,000	186,000

ECUADOR.

Total exports	$1,245,000	$1,075,000	$1,811,000	$1,466,000	$1,147,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	143,000	85,000	216,000	128,000	126,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	89,000	65,000	126,000	115,000	95,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	50,000	46,000	89,000	65,000	69,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	91,000	77,000	134,000	97,000	66,000
Rice, polished	77,000	75,000	171,000	280,000	57,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, explosives	114,000	72,000	203,000	60,000	56,000
Machinery	46,000	32,000	63,000	39,000	52,000
Cotton stockings and socks	61,000	53,000	87,000	63,000	46,000
Leather, and manufactures of	70,000	59,000	55,000	30,000	42,000
Glass and glassware	23,000	15,000	35,000	30,000	35,000
Clothing; millinery	44,000	39,000	65,000	54,000	32,000
Beer in bottles	57,000	67,000	73,000	53,000	32,000
Silk trimmings	17,000	22,000	40,000	30,000	25,000
Musical instruments	22,000	14,000	25,000	17,000	25,000

EGYPT.

Total exports	$7,670,000	$8,128,000	$10,078,000	$9,053,000	$10,318,000
Woolen suitings	516,000	575,000	1,061,000	637,000	729,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	566,000	622,000	647,000	664,000	603,000
Wheat flour	446,000	290,000	78,000	130,000	469,000
Cotton stockings and socks	558,000	537,000	320,000	194,000	360,000
Coal	386,000	349,000	517,000	305,000	285,000
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	85,000	56,000	298,000	234,000	291,000
Indigo	293,000	308,000	318,000	255,000	204,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

EGYPT—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	$145,000	$177,000	$196,000	$133,000	$218,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	281,000	182,000	214,000	161,000	186,000
Steam locomotives and tenders	2,000	62,000	23,000	142,000	233,000
Gold, articles of	96,000	89,000	74,000	76,000	175,000
Building and furniture fittings, malleable-iron	129,000	136,000	200,000	179,000	141,000
Coal briquets	33,000	116,000	148,000	165,000	140,000
Woolen knit goods (except gloves and underwear)	131,000	98,000	205,000	110,000	144,000
Lanterns, lamps, railway-track appurtenances, and other iron wares	68,000	103,000	122,000	85,000	118,000
Steam locomobiles (except plow tractors)	106,000	67,000	137,000	147,000	219,000
Silk trimmings	41,000	60,000	53,000	84,000	109,000
Beer	145,000	109,000	121,000	114,000	105,000
Axles, railway wheels, and parts of	32,000	11,000	17,000	62,000	99,000
Upper leather	48,000	82,000	45,000	61,000	98,000
Boots and shoes, leather	21,000	28,000	50,000	52,000	96,000
Furniture, not upholstered, iron	2,000	1,000	5,000	16,000	95,000
Cotton underwear	50,000	73,000	102,000	65,000	91,000
Rye flour	1,000	.....	.....	43,000	90,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn, rough	33,000	34,000	71,000	50,000	85,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn, worked	129,000	39,000	40,000	75,000	89,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	68,000	68,000	81,000	73,000	88,000
Coal-tar dyes	40,000	43,000	70,000	89,000	85,000
Locks and keys	84,000	84,000	92,000	93,000	76,000
Woolen clothing for women and girls	61,000	68,000	43,000	32,000	72,000
Toys	58,000	60,000	73,000	63,000	69,000
Sheet iron	31,000	27,000	47,000	43,000	68,000
Embroidery on cotton, linen, woolen foundation	85,000	98,000	111,000	77,000	62,000
Rails for railways	29,000	31,000	114,000	356,000	62,000
Tableware, china	75,000	81,000	123,000	74,000	62,000
Kitchen utensils, bathtubs, lamps, and other cast-iron wares	26,000	29,000	64,000	46,000	66,000
Close-woven tissues, partly of silk	129,000	104,000	124,000	98,000	60,000
Lamp chimneys	59,000	61,000	84,000	53,000	60,000
Perfumery and cosmetics	40,000	81,000	70,000	48,000	58,000
Freight cars	2,000	13,000	60,000	11,000	52,000
Copper rods, sheets, plates, hammered or rolled	30,000	15,000	22,000	36,000	50,000
Pianos	42,000	55,000	51,000	47,000	50,000

FINLAND.

Total exports	$14,800,000	$17,577,000	$17,945,000	$19,851,000	$23,205,000
Rye flour	823,000	1,682,000	1,790,000	2,111,000	2,869,000
Wheat flour	2,045,000	1,543,000	1,837,000	2,321,000	2,155,000
Cattle hides, raw	588,000	923,000	675,000	1,044,000	1,257,000
Oatmeal; coarse-ground grain	1,252,000	1,576,000	948,000	920,000	970,000
Rye	559,000	886,000	1,078,000	382,000	683,000
Woolen tissues	558,000	571,000	574,000	553,000	510,000
Worsted yarn	178,000	191,000	263,000	285,000	421,000
Cement	238,000	288,000	317,000	318,000	344,000
Passenger automobiles	17,000	61,000	225,000	256,000	306,000
Upper leather	135,000	205,000	197,000	264,000	312,000
Cotton, raw	145,000	302,000	111,000	45,000	312,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	32,000	30,000	41,000	69,000	240,000
Railway wheels, axes, and parts of	55,000	41,000	88,000	80,000	227,000
Boots and shoes, leather	176,000	225,000	236,000	208,000	203,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc	104,000	76,000	111,000	133,000	179,000
Vegetable tallow; margarin	.....	26,000	55,000	163,000	165,000
Household and kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	96,000	123,000	139,000	171,000	163,000
Electric incandescent lamps	113,000	110,000	102,000	140,000	178,000
Machinery for the pulp and paper industry	70,000	50,000	69,000	134,000	165,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

FRANCE.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$108,319,000	$129,332,000	$142,456,000	$164,083,000	$187,998,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	12,252,000	15,935,000	10,571,000	14,215,000	16,401,000
Coke	6,799,000	8,526,000	9,381,000	12,753,000	13,805,000
Coal	5,975,000	7,296,000	9,277,000	10,715,000	12,758,000
Wheat	45,000	4,846,000	4,381,000	3,194,000	9,718,000
Oats	.....	573,000	614,000	230,000	4,259,000
Metal-working machinery	1,099,000	1,382,000	1,639,000	2,389,000	3,029,000
Pig iron and nonmalleable iron alloys	848,000	1,298,000	1,831,000	2,825,000	2,316,000
Chemically prepared wood pulp, straw, esparto, and other fibrous materials	1,449,000	1,817,000	1,820,000	1,869,000	2,038,000
Chloride of potash	1,044,000	1,169,000	1,487,000	1,557,000	2,033,000
Benzol, cumol, toluol; hydrocarbons	223,000	541,000	864,000	1,389,000	1,879,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc	194,000	210,000	298,000	454,000	1,809,000
Fur skins, raw (except skins of hares and rabbits)	194,000	204,000	2,188,000	2,590,000	1,757,000
Toys	1,364,000	1,469,000	1,412,000	1,564,000	1,670,000
Woolen tissues	2,553,000	1,664,000	1,611,000	1,669,000	1,650,000
Tire covers	.....	.....	.....	2,003,000	1,569,000
Metalloids, acids, salts, not specially mentioned	1,428,000	959,000	1,146,000	1,413,000	1,560,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	610,000	780,000	1,220,000	1,239,000	1,561,000
Rye	1,000	1,730,000	1,793,000	1,098,000	1,520,000
Upper leather	1,572,000	1,260,000	1,110,000	1,483,000	1,467,000
Coal briquets	245,000	512,000	992,000	1,365,000	1,452,000
Films and other wares, celluloid	119,000	110,000	339,000	751,000	1,416,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	493,000	724,000	874,000	888,000	1,305,000
Cattle hides, raw	1,097,000	1,031,000	718,000	1,374,000	1,294,000
Sewing machines attached to stands or to be driven by motors	908,000	893,000	1,184,000	1,271,000	1,290,000
Waste of bleached, etc., wool	1,000,000	993,000	974,000	1,195,000	1,176,000
Brass, gun metal, tombac, unwrought	922,000	905,000	1,130,000	1,148,000	1,139,000
Rye flour	.....	260,000	709,000	861,000	1,052,000
Coal-tar dyes	1,130,000	1,069,000	791,000	904,000	1,035,000
Machinery not specially mentioned	776,000	483,000	871,000	1,073,000	962,000
Bristles	639,000	697,000	765,000	798,000	960,000
Hops	731,000	648,000	1,143,000	1,099,000	912,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk	1,073,000	1,380,000	1,189,000	1,006,000	878,000
Silk velvet and plush and similar tissues, wholly or partly of silk	278,000	581,000	746,000	1,028,000	1,002,000
Passenger automobiles	431,000	651,000	672,000	836,000	869,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	208,000	257,000	244,000	712,000	800,000
Tin, crude and scrap	555,000	869,000	998,000	622,000	872,000
Cotton stockings and socks	210,000	430,000	548,000	751,000	855,000
Varnished leather	581,000	560,000	756,000	1,079,000	993,000
Cotton laces, embroidered	69,000	348,000	1,129,000	694,000	838,000
Stoves, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, lamps, and other cast-iron wares	377,000	325,000	662,000	632,000	840,000
Sulphate of potash	245,000	343,000	617,000	542,000	803,000
Merino wool	438,000	384,000	397,000	570,000	748,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	809,000	986,000	817,000	899,000	746,000
Books	625,000	605,000	610,000	597,000	711,000
Knitted and net wares, silk	38,000	36,000	83,000	361,000	678,000
Gold, articles of	827,000	277,000	416,000	598,000	659,000
Copper wire	298,000	369,000	237,000	268,000	658,000
Sugar-beet seed	528,000	677,000	760,000	766,000	654,000
Knitted and net wares, cotton	80,000	205,000	281,000	446,000	643,000
Flax, cleaned, steeped, broken	107,000	84,000	552,000	1,164,000	630,000
Fireproof bricks	300,000	380,000	769,000	613,000	630,000

FRENCH INDO-CHINA.

Total exports	$188,000	$292,000	$325,000	$220,000	$342,000
Manufactures of textile materials	33,000	26,000	28,000	24,000	29,000
Indigo	.....	4,000	14,000	19,000	23,000
Boxes and cans, sheet-iron	.....	.....	.....	11,000	22,000
Machines for cleaning grain, rice, etc	18,000	14,000	1,000	.....	17,000
Sewing needles	1,000	4,000	9,000	4,000	16,000
Sheet india rubber, combined with textile materials	1,000	13,000	6,000	.....	15,000
Metalloids, acids, salts, not specially mentioned	.....	.....	2,000	4,000	12,000
Locks and keys	2,000	1,000	3,000	5,000	10,000
Coal-tar dyes	5,000	21,000	30,000	7,000	8,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

GREECE.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$2,684,000	$3,592,000	$4,245,000	$4,497,000	$5,794,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	245,000	328,000	350,000	341,000	319,000
Coal	109,000	173,000	220,000	145,000	210,000
Lanterns, lamps, track appurtenances, and other wares of malleable iron	20,000	48,000	218,000	262,000	180,000
Cartridges, filled					
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	99,000	116,000	106,000	127,000	153,000
Primers, filled percussion caps, etc.					
Upper leather	105,000	147,000	118,000	86,000	126,000
Cotton stockings and socks	44,000	65,000	70,000	68,000	108,000
Cartridge shells, copper; primers, not filled	1,000		36,000	89,000	109,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	116,000	122,000	100,000	48,000	119,000
Wheat flour					109,000
Copper wire	12,000	9,000	1,000	10,000	122,000
Coal briquets		82,000	60,000	70,000	103,000
Coke	41,000	74,000	87,000	48,000	93,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	32,000	31,000	32,000	56,000	89,000
Sheets and plates of copper	43,000	41,000	48,000	68,000	83,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	37,000	12,000	26,000	39,000	78,000
Sugar in blocks, sticks, cubes				2,000	68,000
Gunpowder			64,000	72,000	74,000
Kitchen utensils, etc., cast-brass	62,000	20,000	32,000	57,000	64,000
Machines for the lime, cement, and similar industries	6,000	3,000	27,000	27,000	63,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	26,000	29,000	44,000	46,000	50,000

GUATEMALA.

Total exports	$596,000	$699,000	$850,000	$991,000	$1,115,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	87,000	102,000	98,000	114,000	149,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, explosives	33,000	41,000	64,000	75,000	82,000
Cotton yarn	20,000	31,000	45,000	47,000	65,000
Wool, manufactures of	47,000	45,000	53,000	59,000	62,000
Machinery	82,000	30,000	39,000	39,000	60,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	36,000	53,000	72,000	63,000	56,000
Silk, manufactures of	22,000	30,000	53,000	46,000	50,000
Beer in bottles	19,000	21,000	26,000	42,000	49,000
Clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles	16,000	28,000	26,000	37,000	41,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	21,000	33,000	30,000	34,000	40,000
Cotton stockings and socks	26,000	39,000	40,000	36,000	30,000

HAITI.

Total exports	$296,000	$344,000	$544,000	$509,000	$327,000
Rice, polished	61,000	65,000	152,000	151,000	62,000
Cotton, manufactures of	55,000	61,000	66,000	43,000	26,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	10,000	13,000	40,000	45,000	22,000
Beer in bottles	10,000	21,000	20,000	24,000	21,000
Matches	7,000	11,000	18,000	21,000	20,000

HONDURAS.

Total exports	$134,000	$177,000	$248,000	$340,000	$335,000
Cotton, manufactures of	27,000	42,000	63,000	73,000	71,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	10,000	17,000	33,000	40,000	37,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, explosives	12,000	22,000	10,000	33,000	26,000
Silk, manufactures of	6,000	6,000	16,000	10,000	19,000
Leather, and manufactures of	8,000	11,000	15,000	10,000	18,000
Machinery		3,000	16,000	14,000	13,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

ITALY.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$68,777,000	$76,998,000	$82,814,000	$95,477,000	$93,653,000
Coal	898,000	1,455,000	1,728,000	2,739,000	3,649,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	3,135,000	3,069,000	2,883,000	2,645,000	2,851,000
Upper leather	1,972,000	2,462,000	3,039,000	3,141,000	2,663,000
Stoves, lamps, railway-track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	401,000	1,008,000	905,000	2,814,000	2,203,000
Coal-tar dyes	1,956,000	1,905,000	1,909,000	2,058,000	2,162,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	728,000	1,195,000	952,000	1,268,000	1,587,000
Gold, articles of	832,000	750,000	947,000	1,241,000	1,502,000
Pig iron; nonmalleable iron alloys	250,000	174,000	470,000	1,254,000	1,429,000
Metal-working machinery	1,708,000	1,656,000	1,617,000	1,466,000	1,406,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	894,000	738,000	676,000	1,047,000	1,213,000
Chemically prepared wood pulp, straw, esparto, and other fibrous materials	752,000	838,000	901,000	934,000	1,143,000
Coke	600,000	601,000	732,000	830,000	1,129,000
Railway wheels, axles, and parts of	937,000	792,000	852,000	1,308,000	1,035,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	883,000	764,000	1,070,000	1,086,000	1,029,000
Wheat	608,000	570,000	1,361,000	5,221,000	950,000
Films and other wares of celluloid	81,000	107,000	296,000	566,000	945,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc	492,000	678,000	670,000	815,000	935,000
Electric incandescent lamps	387,000	700,000	836,000	942,000	904,000
Silk, raw	399,000	576,000	799,000	1,044,000	888,000
Merino tops	692,000	851,000	911,000	939,000	881,000
Cotton stockings and socks	228,000	450,000	332,000	421,000	845,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	595,000	731,000	780,000	806,000	794,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	408,000	636,000	644,000	716,000	781,000
Rods, sheets, plates, of brass, tombac, etc	302,000	285,000	326,000	578,000	785,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	1,279,000	1,205,000	1,065,000	1,050,000	765,000
Iron, old and scrap	1,196,000	773,000	866,000	486,000	765,000
Cotton, raw	424,000	292,000	216,000	872,000	732,000
Household and kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	378,000	505,000	552,000	624,000	681,000
Passenger automobiles	175,000	131,000	221,000	419,000	665,000
Sewing machines, to be worked by hand; without stands; top parts	813,000	506,000	753,000	734,000	645,000
Stoves, boilers, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	721,000	627,000	950,000	641,000	636,000
Electric meters; registers	364,000	506,000	435,000	609,000	643,000
Tire covers				374,000	641,000
Goat and kid skins, dressed	566,000	585,000	545,000	552,000	613,000
Pianos	476,000	516,000	525,000	579,000	582,000
Girders, malleable-iron	847,000	691,000	616,000	502,000	563,000
Toys	350,000	451,000	439,000	506,000	566,000
Rye flour		34,000	97,000	260,000	565,000
Coal briquets	527,000	770,000	814,000	546,000	553,000
Sheet india rubber, combined with textile materials	205,000	331,000	361,000	457,000	547,000
Machinery, not specially mentioned	231,000	511,000	396,000	517,000	524,000
Primers; filled percussion caps; fuses	22,000	48,000	127,000	262,000	510,000

JAPAN.

Total exports	$18,473,000	$21,263,000	$26,795,000	$26,313,000	$29,194,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	1,045,000	1,615,000	1,496,000	1,705,000	2,563,000
Worsted yarn	1,446,000	1,297,000	1,430,000	2,484,000	2,110,000
Coal-tar dyes	1,826,000	2,109,000	1,645,000	1,973,000	2,003,000
Iron wire	577,000	988,000	1,028,000	1,333,000	1,413,000
Indigo	2,378,000	1,530,000	1,364,000	1,101,000	1,364,000
Sheet iron, rough	159,000	434,000	486,000	530,000	1,227,000
Woolen tissues	1,073,000	1,365,000	1,142,000	847,000	782,000
Electric cables	136,000	780,000	857,000	1,033,000	767,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	279,000	268,000	1,073,000	827,000	767,000
Rails for railways	306,000	729,000	932,000	679,000	657,000
Structural iron (except bridges, and parts of)	53,000	64,000	173,000	226,000	426,000
Sheet zinc, rough	289,000	316,000	559,000	402,000	400,000
Railway wheels, axles, and parts of	15,000	118,000	394,000	421,000	384,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

JAPAN—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Girders, malleable-iron	$63,000	$119,000	$215,000	$328,000	$369,000
Steam locomotives and tenders	49,000	87,000	369,000	264,000	362,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	98,000	104,000	472,000	283,000	341,000
Colored paper				258,000	307,000
Metalloids, acids, salts, not specially mentioned	115,000	181,000	280,000	215,000	304,000
Water-power machinery	64,000	50,000	186,000	158,000	313,000
Parts of machines, etc., of malleable iron, rough	22,000	43,000	333,000	296,000	287,000
Wire nails	564,000	375,000	213,000	224,000	277,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rough	33,000	109,000	305,000	123,000	271,000
Metal-working machinery	40,000	63,000	120,000	228,000	273,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), worked	8,000	58,000	59,000	69,000	250,000
Lamps, track appurtenances, and other wares of malleable iron, worked	76,000	81,000	193,000	289,000	248,000

MEXICO.

Total exports	**$9,076,000**	**$11,170,000**	**$10,736,000**	**$10,774,000**	**$11,422,000**
Coke	**309,000**	**254,000**	**329,000**	**213,000**	**338,000**
Cyanide of potassium; cyanide of sodium	**366,000**	**393,000**	**336,000**	**315,000**	**326,000**
Coal-tar dyes	**269,000**	**288,000**	**223,000**	**235,000**	**283,000**
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	**200,000**	**238,000**	**228,000**	**250,000**	**276,000**
Cotton stockings and socks	**170,000**	**255,000**	**249,000**	**254,000**	**269,000**
Toys	**150,000**	**248,000**	**251,000**	**230,000**	**263,000**
Household and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	**93,000**	**150,000**	**259,000**	**260,000**	**241,000**
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	**156,000**	**122,000**	**130,000**	**141,000**	**238,000**
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	**124,000**	**223,000**	**213,000**	**95,000**	**233,000**
Close-woven silk tissues	**89,000**	**144,000**	**131,000**	**177,000**	**206,000**
Knitted and net wares of wool	**69,000**	**104,000**	**103,000**	**122,000**	**205,000**
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	**267,000**	**261,000**	**180,000**	**179,000**	**197,000**
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	**194,000**	**232,000**	**173,000**	**148,000**	**193,000**
Cotton lace	**155,000**	**134,000**	**142,000**	**183,000**	**185,000**
Cutlery, fine	**100,000**	**130,000**	**190,000**	**247,000**	**178,000**
Electric incandescent lamps	**210,000**	**220,000**	**121,000**	**156,000**	**149,000**
Cartridges, filled	**5,000**	**4,000**	**303,000**	**38,000**	**149,000**
Passenger automobiles	**52,000**	**119,000**	**243,000**	**58,000**	**142,000**
Silk trimmings	**153,000**	**140,000**	**160,000**	**174,000**	**138,000**
Upper leather	**112,000**	**111,000**	**92,000**	**165,000**	**128,000**
Gold, articles of	**160,000**	**160,000**	**77,000**	**87,000**	**121,000**
Copper wire	**77,000**	**6,000**	**7,000**	**11,000**	**121,000**
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc	**124,000**	**198,000**	**92,000**	**76,000**	**111,000**

MOROCCO.

Total exports	$826,000	$1,176,000	$1,319,000	$1,887,000	$3,142,000
Beet sugar, refined	397,000	620,000	684,000	655,000	891,000
Woolen suitings	75,000	63,000	102,000	270,000	231,000
Rice, polished	5,000	14,000	10,000	11,000	141,000
Commercial automobiles					138,000
Wheat flour			2,000	2,000	134,000
Rails and sleepers, iron	1,000	2,000	17,000	57,000	96,000
Malleable iron in bars	12,000	14,000	10,000	22,000	92,000
Beer in bottles	9,000	14,000	31,000	56,000	67,000
Pearled grain, grits, and groats					66,000
Alcohol	15,000	14,000	39,000	68,000	53,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

NETHERLANDS.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$107,939,000	$118,694,000	$126,631,000	$144,825,000	$165,088,000
Coal	15,312,000	16,232,000	17,635,000	19,755,000	24,504,000
Vegetable tallow; margarin	73,000	766,000	567,000	3,532,000	5,737,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	2,427,000	2,617,000	2,999,000	4,407,000	4,764,000
Rye	2,897,000	4,321,000	5,553,000	6,359,000	4,665,000
Woolen tissues	3,705,000	3,701,000	3,688,000	3,608,000	4,189,000
Sheet iron, rough, 5 millimeters or more in thickness	2,461,000	2,464,000	3,046,000	3,497,000	4,016,000
Woolen clothing for women and girls	3,153,000	3,223,000	3,222,000	2,942,000	3,186,000
Oats	870,000	917,000	1,018,000	3,443,000	3,049,000
Wheat	1,171,000	1,691,000	1,836,000	860,000	2,294,000
Oil cake and meal	2,531,000	2,174,000	2,397,000	2,210,000	1,992,000
Cotton yarn	1,684,000	1,926,000	2,079,000	2,199,000	1,956,000
Potash salts: abraum salts	654,000	882,000	989,000	1,549,000	1,831,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	893,000	1,443,000	1,050,000	914,000	1,764,000
Wheat flour	1,605,000	2,095,000	1,260,000	1,712,000	1,610,000
Freight cars	168,000	63,000	150,000	582,000	1,550,000
Thomas meal	819,000	993,000	1,111,000	1,162,000	1,472,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	1,308,000	1,341,000	1,356,000	1,319,000	1,400,000
Cement	623,000	881,000	939,000	1,129,000	1,363,000
Coke	750,000	903,000	980,000	1,151,000	1,298,000
Electric cables	894,000	1,285,000	712,000	1,004,000	1,291,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	834,000	784,000	952,000	1,220,000	1,255,000
Stoves, boilers, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	441,000	446,000	692,000	880,000	1,246,000
Girders, malleable-iron	691,000	714,000	911,000	1,148,000	1,188,000
Coal briquets	426,000	565,000	719,000	996,000	1,113,000
Waste of spun cotton	904,000	835,000	1,014,000	952,000	1,116,000
Sulphate of ammonia	438,000	542,000	555,000	1,065,000	1,078,000
Beet sugar, unrefined	387,000	812,000	1,659,000	41,000	993,000
Rails for railways	468,000	848,000	607,000	1,004,000	979,000
Cotton, raw	1,099,000	1,182,000	807,000	978,000	978,000
Cattle hides, raw	1,333,000	1,160,000	714,000	1,269,000	892,000
Pig iron: nonmalleable iron alloys	338,000	318,000	675,000	1,012,000	899,000
Lignite briquets	661,000	735,000	704,000	771,000	907,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	405,000	598,000	630,000	731,000	870,000
Metal-working machinery	396,000	449,000	398,000	504,000	853,000
Potassium-magnesium sulphate	270,000	508,000	880,000	710,000	781,000
Rye flour	542,000	634,000	567,000	764,000	755,000
Books	667,000	647,000	625,000	650,000	755,000
Passenger automobiles	210,000	406,000	431,000	694,000	724,000
Mineral water	444,000	702,000	664,000	736,000	702,000
Anthracene oil, carbolic oil, creosote oil, and other heavy coal-tar oils	397,000	332,000	633,000	744,000	694,000
Toys	491,000	573,000	555,000	571,000	701,000
Coal-tar dyes	546,000	534,000	524,000	730,000	663,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	374,000	495,000	542,000	582,000	686,000

NEW ZEALAND.

Total exports	$1,196,000	$1,416,000	$2,068,000	$2,118,000	$2,543,000
Tire covers	.....	.....	.....	119,000	281,000
Pianos	141,000	196,000	243,000	250,000	190,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	179,000	181,000	307,000	188,000	188,000
Wool, manufactures of	53,000	41,000	73,000	88,000	126,000
Cotton, manufactures of	60,000	65,000	100,000	117,000	114,000
Clover seed	37,000	93,000	207,000	216,000	104,000
Machinery	37,000	43,000	69,000	66,000	103,000
Toys	59,000	79,000	102,000	98,000	100,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	17,000	17,000	22,000	37,000	76,000
Tartar; tartrate of soda	2,000	1,000	5,000	30,000	73,000
Thomas meal	3,000	21,000	20,000	31,000	72,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	44,000	53,000	66,000	60,000	67,000
Copper and alloys, and manufactures of	20,000	14,000	40,000	44,000	65,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	55,000	20,000	34,000	41,000	63,000
Superphosphates	.....	.....	.....	19,000	56,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

NICARAGUA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$195,000	$188,000	$538,000	$392,000	$403,000
Cotton, manufactures of	36,000	41,000	109,000	71,000	78,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	22,000	16,000	52,000	70,000	64,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, explosives	22,000	26,000	78,000	37,000	28,000
Machinery	18,000	3,000	3,000	15,000	27,000
Silk, manufactures of	7,000	8,000	37,000	30,000	26,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	14,000	13,000	21,000	22,000	18,000
Rice, polished	4,000	6,000	18,000	22,000	15,000

NORWAY.

Total exports	$24,860,000	$28,539,000	$29,594,000	$34,442,000	$38,493,000
Rye	3,379,000	4,379,000	3,130,000	4,178,000	3,662,000
Beet sugar, refined	2,284,000	2,941,000	2,634,000	2,514,000	2,852,000
Rye flour	1,660,000	1,691,000	1,292,000	1,650,000	2,431,000
Woolen tissues	1,364,000	1,381,000	1,381,000	1,438,000	1,528,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	474,000	531,000	641,000	942,000	1,055,000
Zinc, crude	34,000	382,000	800,000	903,000	925,000
Sheet iron, rough, 5 millimeters or more in thickness	381,000	522,000	395,000	462,000	728,000
Electric cables	276,000	423,000	241,000	299,000	690,000
Iron wire	321,000	292,000	273,000	472,000	509,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	176,000	293,000	544,000	430,000	466,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	363,000	400,000	421,000	440,000	460,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc	146,000	169,000	274,000	351,000	451,000
Upper leather	325,000	299,000	310,000	378,000	412,000
Worsted yarn	244,000	291,000	300,000	343,000	393,000
Electric incandescent lamps	174,000	208,000	248,000	284,000	333,000
Wire of base metals, coated or covered	102,000	157,000	167,000	248,000	325,000
Girders, malleable-iron	186,000	164,000	262,000	327,000	312,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	116,000	148,000	279,000	262,000	287,000
Cattle hides, raw	243,000	196,000	210,000	331,000	269,000
Copper wire	57,000	137,000	198,000	254,000	269,000
Peanut oil; sesame oil	3,000	32,000	50,000	114,000	234,000
Metal-working machinery	126,000	144,000	149,000	216,000	205,000
Pianos	76,000	110,000	149,000	184,000	208,000
Coke	105,000	125,000	147,000	193,000	211,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	47,000	29,000	112,000	233,000	191,000
Machinery, not specially mentioned	63,000	99,000	92,000	168,000	197,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	221,000	134,000	152,000	152,000	181,000
Cigars	124,000	132,000	144,000	152,000	160,000
Cotton tissues, bleached, not specially mentioned	124,000	129,000	114,000	145,000	170,000
Cement	197,000	71,000	70,000	149,000	177,000
Potash salts; abraum salts	26,000	3,000	41,000	135,000	177,000
Wheat	120,000	122,000	144,000	125,000	166,000
Vegetable tallow; margarin	2,000	80,000	64,000	86,000	171,000
Soda, calcined or refined; bleaching soda	65,000	74,000	90,000	91,000	170,000
Passenger automobiles	71,000	50,000	60,000	103,000	168,000
Close-woven tissues, partly of silk	93,000	138,000	139,000	149,000	158,000
Carpeting of linoleum and similar materials	45,000	69,000	98,000	132,000	155,000
Zinc oxide, white and gray	67,000	50,000	90,000	113,000	156,000
Stoves, kettles, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, lamps, and other cast-iron wares	52,000	61,000	123,000	151,000	154,000
Rods, sheets, plates, of brass, tombac	56,000	64,000	85,000	114,000	150,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

PANAMA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$495,000	$613,000	$736,000	$725,000	$756,000
Rice, polished	126,000	149,000	248,000	325,000	191,000
Cotton stockings and socks	34,000	37,000	37,000	56,000	69,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	27,000	37,000	47,000	38,000	56,000
Sugar in crystals	31,000	19,000	32,000	5,000	42,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	12,000	27,000	22,000	32,000	42,000
Perfumery and cosmetics	12,000	25,000	24,000	24,000	26,000
Hollow glass	4,000	6,000	6,000	8,000	25,000
Clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles	14,000	24,000	6,000	9,000	21,000
Silk, manufactures of	13,000	17,000	10,000	14,000	19,000
Tableware, china	3,000	5,000	4,000	10,000	14,000
Toys	10,000	12,000	12,000	16,000	14,000

PARAGUAY.

Total exports	$196,000	$340,000	$581,000	$483,000	$738,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	36,000	46,000	87,000	60,000	86,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	29,000	54,000	66,000	55,000	76,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	17,000	23,000	53,000	36,000	55,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, explosives	9,000	18,000	37,000	20,000	40,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	13,000	24,000	30,000	24,000	34,000
Sugar, lump and granular	4,000	15,000	18,000	25,000	34,000
Machinery	10,000	15,000	28,000	19,000	31,000
Hollow glass	4,000	10,000	20,000	8,000	25,000
Rice, polished	5,000	7,000	25,000	28,000	23,000
Woolen clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles	.....	7,000	9,000	19,000	22,000
Cotton stockings and socks	5,000	10,000	14,000	14,000	21,000
Upper leather	2,000	2,000	8,000	12,000	20,000
Pianos	5,000	3,000	7,000	4,000	16,000

PERSIA.

Total exports	$176,000	$451,000	$594,000	$849,000	$1,096,000
Woolen tissues	34,000	91,000	104,000	172,000	203,000
Cotton velvet, plush, and similar tissue	2,000	6,000	60,000	93,000	193,000
Velvet, plush, and similar tissues, partly of silk	11,000	25,000	49,000	58,000	95,000
Boots and shoes, leather	.....	25,000	11,000	34,000	72,000
Indigo	26,000	33,000	39,000	27,000	65,000
Cotton stockings	2,000	4,000	12,000	24,000	40,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	5,000	8,000	15,000	24,000	32,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	11,000	143,000	39,000	49,000	32,000

PERU.

Total exports	$2,750,000	$3,044,000	$3,833,000	$3,715,000	$4,092,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	225,000	270,000	300,000	243,000	226,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	187,000	212,000	328,000	235,000	224,000
Cotton stockings and socks	160,000	150,000	207,000	241,000	196,000
Sugar machinery	6,000	10,000	2,000	53,000	186,000
Sulphate of potash	33,000	64,000	89,000	99,000	107,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	39,000	36,000	44,000	68,000	91,000
Upper leather	71,000	66,000	88,000	95,000	87,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	49,000	54,000	74,000	79,000	76,000
Dynamite and other explosives	13,000	33,000	13,000	39,000	72,000
Rice, polished	73,000	76,000	89,000	94,000	68,000
Silk trimmings	31,000	45,000	58,000	64,000	62,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	7,000	10,000	9,000	21,000	54,000
Clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles, cotton	25,000	37,000	36,000	46,000	51,000
Printing paper	40,000	59,000	53,000	40,000	47,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

PERU—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Gold, articles of	$145,000	$46,000	$83,000	$64,000	$47,000
Knitted and net wares, wool	25,000	20,000	34,000	34,000	47,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk	20,000	29,000	45,000	40,000	44,000
Steel flasks, lanterns, lamps, stoves, scrapers, and other iron wares	20,000	29,000	44,000	20,000	40,000
Cement	19,000	29,000	20,000	41,000	38,000
Pumps and drainage machinery	.....	.....	.....	6,000	38,000
Cotton underwear	19,000	27,000	44,000	52,000	37,000
Goat and kid skin, dressed	26,000	31,000	29,000	33,000	37,000
Malleable iron in bars (including girders)	4,000	3,000	9,000	11,000	36,000
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	5,000	.....	6,000	3,000	36,000
Toys	25,000	29,000	35,000	45,000	36,000
Pianos	31,000	22,000	30,000	34,000	35,000

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Total exports	**$1,372,000**	**$1,829,000**	**$1,687,000**	**$2,203,000**	**$2,354,000**
Cement	14,000	35,000	64,000	192,000	296,000
Cotton underwear	121,000	245,000	122,000	80,000	165,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, explosives	89,000	101,000	117,000	159,000	140,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	88,000	134,000	89,000	136,000	86,000
Hollow glass	51,000	52,000	44,000	81,000	79,000
Silk, manufactures of	94,000	90,000	51,000	75,000	79,000
Malleable iron in bars	5,000	8,000	4,000	4,000	79,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	55,000	60,000	79,000	75,000	60,000
Softwood for building and industrial purposes	10,000	38,000	38,000	74,000	56,000
Sewing machines, to be worked by hand, without stands; top parts	71,000	84,000	102,000	56,000	56,000
Stoves, lamps, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other wares of malleable iron	25,000	30,000	43,000	57,000	50,000
Machinery for cleaning grain, rice, etc.	11,000	13,000	14,000	11,000	48,000
Musical instruments	42,000	39,000	38,000	45,000	48,000
Umbrella frames	30,000	23,000	38,000	35,000	46,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	6,000	9,000	15,000	29,000	47,000
Cutlery, fine	30,000	58,000	45,000	53,000	44,000
Rails, sleepers, fishplates, bedplates	4,000	17,000	32,000	16,000	40,000
Cotton stockings and socks	58,000	55,000	41,000	74,000	38,000
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	1,000	5,000	26,000	40,000	38,000
Flour-mill machinery	1,000	3,000	1,000	7,000	36,000

PORTUGAL.

Total exports	$6,969,000	$7,866,000	$9,556,000	$10,045,000	$12,389,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	220,000	243,000	308,000	396,000	589,000
Rice, polished	537,000	414,000	606,000	485,000	560,000
Steam locomotives	81,000	79,000	292,000	9,000	501,000
Iron wire	373,000	310,000	438,000	458,000	456,000
Upper leather	222,000	248,000	346,000	457,000	441,000
Sugar in crystals	663,000	160,000	419,000	187,000	388,000
Codfish, prepared	3,000	23,000	115,000	155,000	337,000
Coal-tar dyes	237,000	278,000	228,000	228,000	238,000
Cotton, raw	21,000	156,000	74,000	217,000	207,000
Passenger automobiles	25,000	57,000	74,000	131,000	215,000
Rails for railways	3,000	61,000	181,000	50,000	221,000
Rye	51,000	9,000	10,000	349,000	194,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	100,000	139,000	154,000	135,000	158,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	170,000	237,000	174,000	129,000	132,000
Cotton stockings and socks	39,000	104,000	113,000	116,000	153,000
Kitchen utensils, etc., cast-brass	38,000	54,000	54,000	94,000	141,000
Silk trimmings; chenille	62,000	73,000	56,000	83,000	96,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$1,266,000	$1,967,000	$2,106,000	$1,813,000	$1,987,000
Rails for railways	123,000	143,000	125,000	158,000	278,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	152,000	223,000	377,000	217,000	156,000
Sheet zinc	6,000	14,000	99,000	225,000	122,000
Cement	36,000	82,000	79,000	99,000	106,000
Railway sleepers, iron	7,000	10,000	37,000	45,000	84,000
Parts of machines, vessels, etc., of malleable iron, rough	2,000	67,000	13,000	49,000	52,000
Spades, shovels, kitchen pans	31,000	40,000	40,000	47,000	48,000
Cyanide of potassium; cyanide of sodium	25,000	114,000	24,000	3,000	45,000
Beer	33,000	38,000	40,000	53,000	43,000
Wire of brass or other copper alloys	30,000	28,000	28,000	32,000	53,000
Barbed wire	33,000	44,000	15,000	4,000	42,000

ROUMANIA.

Total exports	$13,623,000	$15,638,000	$21,742,000	$31,345,000	$33,328,000
Steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	138,000	129,000	378,000	1,189,000	2,670,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	814,000	835,000	1,263,000	1,911,000	2,010,000
Cartridges, filled	131,000	6,000	15,000	763,000	1,914,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	573,000	624,000	805,000	1,094,000	1,198,000
Steam locomotives and tenders	209,000	483,000	1,051,000	193,000	1,266,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	1,048,000	1,480,000	2,137,000	2,181,000	1,044,000
Primers, filled percussion caps, etc	18,000	2,000	2,000	247,000	1,015,000
Gunpowder	29,000	13,000	155,000	156,000	912,000
Cattle hides, raw	45,000	153,000	173,000	144,000	708,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	639,000	725,000	1,049,000	1,194,000	699,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	278,000	312,000	421,000	661,000	544,000
Cartridge shells, copper; primers, unfilled	1,000	1,000	15,000	95,000	535,000
Freight cars	40,000	61,000	99,000	431,000	418,000
Upper leather	289,000	322,000	365,000	366,000	417,000
Kitchen utensils, etc., cast-brass	51,000	191,000	156,000	276,000	440,000
Coal	56,000	134,000	111,000	223,000	440,000
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	155,000	174,000	287,000	457,000	365,000
Rails for railways	49,000	98,000	85,000	83,000	358,000
Iron wire, rolled, not polished	141,000	176,000	288,000	423,000	315,000
Stoves, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	79,000	127,000	209,000	344,000	306,000
Sheet iron, coated with lead or other common metals (except tin or zinc)	200,000	227,000	272,000	338,000	262,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	90,000	151,000	221,000	280,000	251,000
Sugar machinery	14,000	46,000	63,000	31,000	273,000
Girders, malleable-iron	91,000	84,000	140,000	417,000	238,000
Commercial automobiles	.....	7,000	.....	89,000	231,000
Iron plows	247,000	283,000	433,000	536,000	209,000
Passenger automobiles	93,000	94,000	154,000	555,000	214,000
Flour-mill machinery	192,000	104,000	109,000	410,000	205,000
Cotton stockings and socks	174,000	174,000	222,000	238,000	216,000
Sheet iron, rough, 5 millimeters or more in thickness	113,000	74,000	69,000	431,000	188,000
Blasting powder, dynamite	.....	5,000	.....	8,000	196,000
Goat and kid skin, dressed	218,000	207,000	294,000	199,000	156,000
Boots and shoes, leather	7,000	15,000	57,000	99,000	162,000
Merino wool, washed after shearing	50,000	4,000	33,000	50,000	162,000
Metal-working machinery	112,000	126,000	132,000	198,000	134,000

RUSSIA.

Total exports	$105,787,000	$130,201,000	$148,843,000	$161,799,000	$209,488,000
Rye	4,186,000	4,666,000	5,092,000	4,388,000	8,617,000
Coal	2,690,000	3,141,000	3,958,000	4,730,000	6,950,000
Cattle hides, raw	3,136,000	4,581,000	4,332,000	3,643,000	6,559,000
Upper leather	2,125,000	3,332,000	3,552,000	3,851,000	5,686,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	2,366,000	3,045,000	3,127,000	4,161,000	4,911,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

RUSSIA—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Passenger automobiles	$583,000	$1,098,000	$1,823,000	$2,540,000	$4,232,000
Worsted yarn	2,247,000	3,711,000	5,004,000	2,899,000	4,187,000
Metal-working machinery	1,077,000	1,606,000	1,821,000	2,136,000	3,688,000
Merino wool, washed after shearing	2,910,000	3,442,000	3,105,000	3,773,000	3,524,000
Varnished leather	2,229,000	2,545,000	2,947,000	2,637,000	3,317,000
Cotton, raw	3,887,000	4,418,000	3,634,000	2,366,000	2,784,000
Coke	882,000	1,046,000	1,371,000	1,828,000	2,518,000
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	530,000	769,000	2,017,000	2,152,000	2,428,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	1,006,000	1,467,000	1,661,000	1,716,000	2,341,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	549,000	632,000	917,000	1,293,000	2,134,000
Zinc, crude	858,000	1,269,000	1,546,000	1,492,000	2,114,000
Iron plows	1,137,000	1,381,000	1,472,000	1,606,000	2,064,000
Metalloids, acids, salts, not specially mentioned	897,000	1,402,000	1,485,000	1,458,000	1,966,000
Electric incandescent lamps	1,073,000	1,315,000	1,621,000	2,254,000	1,919,000
Sewing machines to be worked by hand, without stands; tops, parts	1,361,000	1,565,000	1,663,000	1,597,000	1,877,000
Silk and woolen rags; cloth list	415,000	961,000	1,046,000	1,263,000	1,846,000
Superphosphates, etc	604,000	977,000	1,386,000	1,570,000	1,795,000
Thrashing machines	601,000	673,000	706,000	1,038,000	1,641,000
Steam locomobiles (except plow tractors)	1,126,000	1,393,000	1,549,000	1,575,000	1,559,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, press cloths)	1,138,000	1,233,000	1,482,000	1,486,000	1,581,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	349,000	618,000	798,000	1,075,000	1,564,000
Goat and kid skin, dressed	1,324,000	1,836,000	1,659,000	1,237,000	1,532,000
Chemical products not specially mentioned, medicinal	976,000	982,000	1,108,000	1,050,000	1,430,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	191,000	219,000	316,000	764,000	1,414,000
Oats	504,000	387,000	310,000	444,000	1,389,000
Abraum salts; potash salts	192,000	327,000	718,000	1,408,000	1,345,000
Machinery not specially mentioned	428,000	759,000	779,000	1,214,000	1,329,000
Thomas meal	281,000	497,000	781,000	1,322,000	1,268,000
Books	1,013,000	1,150,000	1,174,000	1,239,000	1,272,000
Copper, brass, tombac wares, varnished	588,000	813,000	851,000	1,008,000	1,199,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	461,000	537,000	927,000	1,098,000	1,611,000
Machinery for the lime, cement, and similar industries	159,000	168,000	285,000	451,000	1,168,000
Flour-mill machinery	566,000	973,000	727,000	973,000	1,147,000
Horsehides	1,047,000	1,490,000	1,332,000	1,210,000	1,146,000
Fireproof bricks	307,000	383,000	554,000	715,000	1,027,000
Pianos	586,000	794,000	946,000	923,000	1,024,000
Prepared medicaments; proprietary medicines	314,000	367,000	428,000	681,000	1,023,000
Electric meters; registers	333,000	524,000	551,000	748,000	1,011,000
Wheat	243,000	48,000	625,000	515,000	984,000
Cotton stockings and socks	322,000	536,000	709,000	695,000	967,000
Rice, polished	654,000	500,000	718,000	832,000	952,000
Nails	344,000	555,000	358,000	503,000	931,000
Cutlery, coarse (except knives)	505,000	644,000	618,000	695,000	899,000
Sowing machines, hay tedders, lawn mowers, and other agricultural machines	229,000	436,000	642,000	1,101,000	898,000
Steam and gas turbines connected with other machines	22,000	119,000	86,000	322,000	847,000
Jute and jute butts	252,000	377,000	396,000	645,000	828,000
Cutlery, fine	473,000	507,000	565,000	576,000	820,000
Commercial automobiles	74,000	116,000	206,000	461,000	779,000
Beeswax, raw	334,000	381,000	723,000	1,004,000	778,000
Merino wool tops	474,000	340,000	310,000	487,000	774,000
Lead, crude and scrap	387,000	527,000	478,000	584,000	760,000
Driving belts, leather	441,000	464,000	561,000	627,000	743,000
Fishing nets, cotton and linen	248,000	299,000	288,000	480,000	725,000
Kitchen utensils, bathtubs, lamps, and other wares of nonmalleable cast iron				592,000	719,000
Celluloid and similar materials	503,000	670,000	505,000	524,000	717,000
Pumps and drainage machinery				437,000	717,000
Tin, crude and scrap	242,000	327,000	355,000	517,000	698,000
Optical glass, polished and set; stereoscopes, microscopes, lenses	287,000	226,000	298,000	405,000	696,000
Hoisting machinery	140,000	171,000	217,000	366,000	693,000
Nickel, crude and scrap; nickel coins	380,000	509,000	354,000	346,000	692,000
Toys and Christmas-tree decorations	439,000	580,000	633,000	572,000	691,000
Steam engines	192,000	147,000	465,000	418,000	680,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

RUSSIA—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
India rubber, raw or refined	$628,000	$974,000	$797,000	$1,129,000	$647,000
Wood-working machinery	195,000	337,000	476,000	601,000	645,000
Gloves and hair nets, cotton	402,000	370,000	530,000	502,000	641,000
Waste of bleached wool	240,000	303,000	89,000	100,000	628,000
Steel balls, beads, thimbles, corkscrews, nutcrackers, and similar wares	151,000	208,000	366,000	437,000	612,000
Silk trimmings; chenille	877,000	665,000	586,000	609,000	610,000
Beeswax, prepared	493,000	558,000	444,000	377,000	570,000
Pig iron and nonmalleable iron alloys	3,000	9,000	360,000	1,007,000	558,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	393,000	590,000	549,000	561,000	557,000
Cement	69,000	177,000	296,000	532,000	556,000
Tire covers	.....	.....	.....	242,000	551,000
Household and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	389,000	398,000	554,000	558,000	549,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	161,000	161,000	307,000	328,000	533,000
Trinkets of plated gold	254,000	380,000	482,000	464,000	531,000
Cultivators, grubbers, potato diggers, harrows	213,000	276,000	396,000	417,000	519,000
Field glasses; opera glasses	212,000	283,000	213,000	401,000	506,000
Finishing machines for yarns and tissues	231,000	392,000	357,000	323,000	500,000

SALVADOR.

Total exports	$347,000	$324,000	$418,000	$501,000	$634,000
Iron and steel, and manufactures of	30,000	35,000	45,000	75,000	65,000
Cartridges, filled	36,000	27,000	.....	.....	51,000
Upper leather	11,000	10,000	31,000	29,000	48,000
Silk, manufactures of	10,000	10,000	21,000	18,000	34,000
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures of	20,000	24,000	26,000	36,000	34,000
Machinery	7,000	12,000	23,000	11,000	32,000
Cotton stockings and socks	40,000	24,000	29,000	18,000	30,000
Primers; percussion caps, filled	.....	.....	.....	.....	16,000
Prepared medicaments; proprietary medicines	2,000	1,000	3,000	7,000	14,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	11,000	11,000	13,000	13,000	13,000
Articles of stoneware, colored	13,000	12,000	10,000	14,000	13,000

SERBIA.

Total exports	$3,938,000	$4,542,000	$5,072,000	$4,404,000	$4,619,000
Steam locomotives	3,000	2,000	1,000	223,000	296,000
Cattle hides, raw	151,000	202,000	180,000	93,000	235,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	361,000	440,000	299,000	252,000	178,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	182,000	222,000	233,000	138,000	133,000
Oats	.....	.....	.....	.....	150,000
Wheat flour	.....	.....	.....	.....	149,000
Woolen yarn for retail trade	118,000	170,000	191,000	166,000	119,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	105,000	11,000	10,000	16,000	129,000
Blasting powder, dynamite	1,000	.....	.....	.....	120,000
Commercial automobiles	.....	5,000	.....	.....	116,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	243,000	377,000	250,000	189,000	103,000
Freight cars	100,000	8,000	79,000	109,000	106,000
Coke	40,000	39,000	73,000	67,000	76,000
Flour-mill machinery	14,000	46,000	44,000	143,000	39,000
Lamps, lanterns, stoves, railway track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	20,000	72,000	433,000	74,000	54,000
Coal-tar dyes	48,000	74,000	44,000	47,000	55,000
Rice, polished	6,000	23,000	47,000	26,000	47,000
Sulphate of copper	3,000	10,000	21,000	37,000	58,000
Packing paper	49,000	67,000	41,000	59,000	43,000
Woolen clothing for women and girls	35,000	35,000	16,000	15,000	40,000
Upper leather	15,000	33,000	26,000	25,000	43,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

SIAM.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$1,295,000	$1,032,000	$1,178,000	$1,527,000	$2,022,000
Rails for railways		1,000	30,000	305,000	276,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	89,000	73,000	89,000	120,000	196,000
Machinery	244,000	112,000	98,000	139,000	183,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, explosives	99,000	92,000	74,000	71,000	128,000
Electrotechnical products	38,000	42,000	85,000	51,000	82,000
Arrack, rum, cognac, in bottles	29,000	26,000	40,000	43,000	66,000
Copper, tombac, and brass wares, varnished, colored	10,000	8,000	22,000	5,000	38,000
Passenger automobiles	36,000	44,000	23,000	44,000	32,000
Wire nails	33,000	20,000	21,000	21,000	46,000

SPAIN.

Total exports	$16,457,000	$17,052,000	$21,050,000	$26,881,000	$34,040,000
Steam locomotives and tenders	1,035,000	422,000	1,495,000	880,000	2,621
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	528,000	384,000	475,000	765,000	1,169,000
Coal	102,000	174,000	209,000	610,000	962,000
Copper wire	439,000	459,000	379,000	648,000	901,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	297,000	258,000	223,000	395,000	712,000
Chloride of potash	236,000	302,000	433,000	296,000	497,000
Electric incandescent lamps	197,000	241,000	371,000	689,000	462,000
Coal-tar dyes	313,000	441,000	385,000	453,000	421,000
Metal-working machinery	207,000	166,000	168,000	292,000	434,000
Axles, railway wheels, and parts of	92,000	59,000	107,000	186,000	426,000
Electric meters; registers	113,000	131,000	98,000	244,000	408,000
Steel flasks, lanterns, lamps, railway track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	240,000	171,000	258,000	242,000	376,000
Chemically prepared wood pulp, straw, esparto, and other fibrous materials	120,000	271,000	333,000	321,000	360,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	99,000	100,000	71,000	214,000	369,000
Passenger automobiles	61,000	61,000	90,000	175,000	347,000
Silk trimmings, plaited wares, chenille	317,000	226,000	339,000	501,000	332,000
Upper leather	186,000	306,000	293,000	369,000	326,000
Fixed combustion or explosion motors	76,000	72,000	100,000	144,000	338,000
Sulphate of potash	111,000	129,000	245,000	171,000	304,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	151,000	188,000	270,000	225,000	275,000
Toys	153,000	169,000	201,000	237,000	272,000
Kitchen utensils, etc., cast-brass	71,000	166,000	147,000	180,000	252,000
Blooms, billets, puddled bars, ingots	20,000	81,000	2,000	131,000	270,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	205,000	266,000	259,000	258,000	239,000
Superphosphates, etc	105,000	57,000	97,000	135,000	242,000
Cutlery, fine	119,000	114,000	149,000	158,000	232,000

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS (Federated Malay States, British Borneo, Sarawak, Labuan and Keeling Islands).

Total exports	$1,857,000	$2,432,000	$2,803,000	$3,182,000	$3,508,000
Cotton underwear	245,000	466,000	603,000	596,000	544,000
Beer in bottles	261,000	277,000	309,000	383,000	492,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	17,000	37,000	41,000	69,000	117,000
Cutlery, fine	36,000	63,000	63,000	69,000	96,000
Wire nails	59,000	79,000	93,000	76,000	92,000
Tire covers				93,000	86,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	24,000	50,000	71,000	64,000	79,000
Tableware, china	8,000	28,000	45,000	38,000	72,000
Coal-tar dyes	27,000	38,000	30,000	51,000	67,000
Stoves, lamps, and other wares of malleable iron	38,000	63,000	52,000	39,000	67,000
Woolen tissues	34,000	83,000	102,000	72,000	64,000
Condensed milk	77,000	56,000	79,000	77,000	61,000
Upper leather	16,000	40,000	43,000	50,000	51,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

SWEDEN.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$37,185,000	$45,344,000	$45,607,000	$46,985,000	$54,693,000
Rye	2,110,000	1,751,000	902,000	2,735,000	2,255,000
Potash salts; abraum salts	241,000	333,000	630,000	1,138,000	1,993,000
Worsted yarn	820,000	1,863,000	1,762,000	1,458,000	1,849,000
Woolen tissues	1,953,000	2,056,000	1,932,000	1,411,000	1,475,000
Rails for railways	558,000	398,000	878,000	1,298,000	1,356,000
Vegetable tallow; margarin	2,000	297,000	648,000	822,000	1,309,000
Coke	370,000	427,000	510,000	881,000	1,051,000
Oats	984,000	1,933,000	1,189,000	1,397,000	1,034,000
Cattle hides, raw	883,000	871,000	743,000	645,000	973,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk, not specially mentioned	518,000	754,000	779,000	766,000	882,000
Girders, malleable-iron	488,000	569,000	448,000	674,000	873,000
Coal	78,000	87,000	118,000	433,000	837,000
Oil cake and meal	618,000	652,000	446,000	689,000	560,000
Upper leather	684,000	754,000	691,000	526,000	552,000
Electric cables	1,023,000	1,021,000	752,000	565,000	499,000
Metal-working machinery	270,000	278,000	252,000	357,000	499,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	157,000	260,000	288,000	267,000	497,000
Coal-tar dyes	312,000	406,000	427,000	496,000	476,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	386,000	496,000	570,000	460,000	486,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrol sis	188,000	262,000	334,000	340,000	481,000
Sheet iron, rough, 5 millimeters or more in thickness	101,000	102,000	169,000	127,000	455,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	310,000	384,000	288,000	388,000	427,000
Rye flour	476,000	701,000	156,000	366,000	432,000
Passenger automobiles	54,000	90,000	173,000	337,000	436,000
Goat and kid skin, dressed	233,000	305,000	271,000	250,000	431,000
Electric incandescent lamps	340,000	329,000	513,000	373,000	405,000
Peanut oil; sesame oil	47,000	72,000	183,000	277,000	412,000
Wheat	1,559,000	1,596,000	787,000	810,000	356,000
Merino wool, carded or combed	150,000	335,000	357,000	430,000	354,000
Crossbred wool, carded or combed	128,000	92,000	98,000	144,000	324,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	189,000	269,000	444,000	321,000	313,000
Cotton, raw	129,000	184,000	106,000	315,000	307,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	225,000	299,000	344,000	286,000	313,000
Books	253,000	303,000	287,000	262,000	297,000
Cigars	244,000	224,000	229,000	250,000	280,000
Copper, crude	226,000	188,000	97,000	99,000	281,000
Rods, sheets, plates, of brass, tombac	152,000	192,000	212,000	216,000	263,000
Electric meters; registers	99,000	151,000	189,000	217,000	261,000

SWITZERLAND.

Total exports	$98,345,000	$107,728,000	$114,807,000	$123,869,000	$127,586,000
Coal	7,708,000	7,227,000	7,622,000	8,373,000	9,238,000
Coal briquets	2,502,000	2,981,000	3,630,000	3,454,000	3,919,000
Woolen tissues	4,137,000	4,150,000	3,762,000	3,707,000	3,770,000
Coke	1,638,000	1,832,000	2,192,000	2,232,000	2,618,000
Oats	3,392,000	3,532,000	2,186,000	1,967,000	2,319,000
Wheat flour	2,545,000	2,672,000	3,075,000	2,364,000	2,227,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	1,007,000	1,222,000	1,199,000	2,134,000	2,175,000
Beet sugar	1,407,000	2,034,000	1,893,000	2,816,000	2,129,000
Silk, raw	2,609,000	2,833,000	1,943,000	2,084,000	1,878,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk, not specially mentioned	982,000	1,149,000	1,116,000	1,184,000	1,867,000
Books	1,548,000	1,628,000	1,758,000	1,722,000	1,786,000
Woolen clothing for women and girls	956,000	1,296,000	989,000	1,199,000	1,350,000
Upper leather	2,152,000	1,146,000	960,000	1,218,000	1,334,000
Boots and shoes, leather	756,000	901,000	1,110,000	1,248,000	1,249,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	1,117,000	1,252,000	1,263,000	1,139,000	1,231,000
Sheet iron, rough	634,000	656,000	826,000	1,220,000	1,211,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, track appurtenances, etc., of malleable iron	403,000	670,000	944,000	799,000	1,214,000
Wheat	725,000	616,000	1,043,000	1,127,000	1,111,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	284,000	329,000	290,000	399,000	1,055,000
Girders, malleable-iron	1,261,000	1,242,000	1,394,000	1,546,000	1,019,000
Lignite briquets	705,000	733,000	855,000	873,000	1,028,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

SWITZERLAND—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Copper wire	$367,000	$522,000	$456,000	$661,000	$961,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	866,000	844,000	929,000	1,104,000	903,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	731,000	792,000	796,000	707,000	896,000
Rails for railways	476,000	619,000	503,000	717,000	875,000
Stoves, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	485,000	517,000	765,000	874,000	851,000
Worsted yarn	846,000	789,000	802,000	785,000	818,000
Metalloids, acids, salts, not specially mentioned	597,000	778,000	735,000	737,000	836,000
Pig iron and nonmalleable iron alloys	589,000	678,000	749,000	704,000	797,000
Sole leather	364,000	702,000	591,000	927,000	771,000
Cotton, raw	957,000	867,000	882,000	550,000	754,000
Metal-working machinery	796,000	798,000	684,000	773,000	729,000
Woolen clothing for men and boys	630,000	761,000	744,000	726,000	744,000
Potatoes	341,000	1,174,000	725,000	589,000	724,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	329,000	525,000	638,000	668,000	705,000
Blooms, billets, puddled bars, ingots	279,000	273,000	362,000	703,000	670,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	186,000	274,000	326,000	470,000	678,000
Malt	179,000	242,000	494,000	724,000	585,000
Iron wire	289,000	231,000	457,000	674,000	588,000
Toys	450,000	435,000	518,000	498,000	567,000
Silk trimmings; chenille	576,000	628,000	645,000	576,000	544,000
Gold, articles of	488,000	207,000	234,000	525,000	543,000
Beer in barrels	565,000	528,000	568,000	541,000	535,000
Parts of machines, ships, etc., rough	204,000	230,000	344,000	385,000	533,000
Rye	618,000	581,000	353,000	590,000	519,000
Coal-tar dyes	410,000	460,000	435,000	454,000	506,000

TURKEY (including Crete prior to 1912).

Total exports	$18,783,000	$24,959,000	$26,866,000	$28,655,000	$23,423,000
Woolen tissues	2,419,000	3,684,000	3,174,000	2,565,000	2,516,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	1,347,000	1,468,000	1,584,000	2,206,000	1,721,000
Cartridges, filled	2,037,000	2,800,000	1,582,000	1,882,000	1,672,000
Wheat flour	38,000	13,000	5,000	7,000	726,000
Stoves, railway-track appurtenances, and other wares of malleable iron	109,000	540,000	839,000	911,000	624,000
Cotton stockings	799,000	673,000	642,000	528,000	570,000
Rails for railways	81,000	393,000	692,000	951,000	542,000
Railway sleepers, iron	3,000	319,000	403,000	813,000	446,000
Beet sugar, refined	240,000	78,000	162,000	189,000	439,000
Upper leather	249,000	320,000	261,000	206,000	409,000
Steam locomotives and tenders	238,000	351,000	542,000	417,000	331,000
Knitted and net wares, wool	278,000	276,000	357,000	352,000	311,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	216,000	198,000	266,000	208,000	276,000
Calf skin, varnished	249,000	210,000	161,000	154,000	233,000
Gunpowder	5,000	6,000	7,000	.....	226,000
Cotton underwear	140,000	195,000	258,000	270,000	213,000
Coal-tar dyes	207,000	247,000	215,000	206,000	218,000
Freight cars	188,000	190,000	323,000	249,000	192,000
Copper, in rods, sheets, plates	205,000	327,000	292,000	245,000	202,000
Rice, polished	158,000	146,000	176,000	218,000	191,000
Tin, crude and scrap	10,000	62,000	181,000	196,000	200,000
Beer in bottles	51,000	53,000	93,000	183,000	166,000
Stoves, kitchen utensils, bathtubs, and other cast-iron wares	69,000	76,000	187,000	189,000	175,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rolled or drawn	68,000	56,000	120,000	167,000	158,000
Meat extract; meat peptone	.....	1,000	2,000	1,000	164,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	188,000	248,000	204,000	227,000	137,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk, not specially mentioned	185,000	202,000	246,000	218,000	143,000
Household and kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	87,000	140,000	166,000	168,000	133,000
Structural iron (except bridges)	11,000	68,000	173,000	152,000	144,000
Girders, malleable-iron	123,000	165,000	207,000	274,000	118,000
Tableware, china	130,000	144,000	177,000	103,000	125,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

UNITED KINGDOM.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$241,567,000	$262,278,000	$271,243,000	$276,325,000	$342,298,000
Beet sugar	37,926,000	31,862,000	35,461,000	17,346,000	45,566,000
Blooms, puddled bars, ingots, billets	6,285,000	7,348,000	9,176,000	9,493,000	10,553,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk	8,849,000	11,056,000	10,587,000	9,017,000	8,890,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	8,160,000	6,752,000	6,607,000	6,767,000	7,079,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	4,589,000	6,010,000	4,432,000	5,997,000	6,182,000
Toys and Christmas-tree decorations	4,713,000	4,780,000	5,012,000	5,462,000	6,111,000
Aniline and other coal-tar dyes, not specially mentioned	4,698,000	5,481,000	5,074,000	5,574,000	5,352,000
Oats	1,886,000	3,712,000	1,994,000	3,077,000	5,365,000
Zinc, crude and scrap	3,096,000	4,155,000	2,876,000	4,774,000	5,277,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	1,263,000	1,749,000	2,312,000	3,220,000	4,845,000
Upper leather	3,363,000	2,694,000	3,966,000	5,420,000	4,358,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	3,517,000	4,734,000	4,743,000	4,264,000	4,351,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	3,124,000	2,711,000	2,480,000	3,313,000	4,305,000
Coconut oil, not intended for food	29,000	1,013,000	748,000	2,794,000	4,306,000
Cotton underwear	2,768,000	3,301,000	3,611,000	3,821,000	4,119,000
Iron wire	1,388,000	2,985,000	2,994,000	3,202,000	3,704,000
Cotton gloves and hair nets	2,447,000	2,972,000	2,737,000	3,035,000	3,548,000
Sheet iron, rough, 5 millimeters or more in thickness	881,000	1,622,000	2,009,000	1,651,000	3,419,000
Silk trimmings; chenille	3,720,000	3,236,000	3,580,000	3,541,000	3,310,000
Vegetable tallow; margarin	1,000	494,000	1,854,000	2,645,000	3,267,000
Pianos	2,295,000	2,306,000	2,541,000	2,459,000	3,037,000
Cotton lace	1,740,000	1,480,000	1,810,000	2,383,000	2,922,000
Featherstitch embroidery on cotton, linen, or woolen foundation	837,000	1,046,000	1,244,000	3,446,000	2,666,000
Fur skins, raw	1,121,000	1,657,000	1,665,000	1,728,000	2,652,000
Worsted yarn	1,354,000	1,529,000	1,998,000	2,389,000	2,491,000
Packing paper	1,550,000	2,045,000	2,366,000	2,346,000	2,440,000
Chrome, cadmium, wolfram, etc	1,275,000	1,751,000	1,689,000	1,595,000	2,365,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	342,000	310,000	452,000	653,000	2,321,000
Girders, malleable-iron	1,403,000	2,203,000	1,626,000	2,665,000	2,270,000
Cotton stockings and socks	851,000	1,345,000	1,581,000	1,968,000	2,187,000
Woolen clothing for women and girls	1,629,000	1,885,000	1,967,000	1,848,000	2,167,000
Sheet india rubber combined with textile materials	764,000	1,016,000	1,309,000	1,402,000	2,167,000
Copper wire; iron wire with wire of copper wound around it	808,000	1,272,000	963,000	1,143,000	2,019,000
Oil cakes and meal	1,469,000	1,433,000	1,272,000	1,868,000	1,912,000
Iron tubes (except spiral pipes), rough	332,000	428,000	929,000	1,152,000	1,847,000
Potatoes	21,000	32,000	238,000	318,000	1,774,000
Bristles	1,090,000	1,319,000	1,335,000	1,623,000	1,758,000
Woolen knitted or net goods, cut or shaped (except underwear and gloves)	1,520,000	1,708,000	1,519,000	1,473,000	1,759,000
Milk cans, steel flasks, lanterns, stoves, and other wares of malleable iron, worked	636,000	1,001,000	1,333,000	1,399,000	1,758,000
Metalloids, acids, salts, not specially mentioned	1,089,000	1,253,000	1,358,000	1,590,000	1,710,000
Parts of machines, vessels, and vehicles, of malleable iron, rough	829,000	1,081,000	1,107,000	1,311,000	1,580,000
Wall and standing clocks	1,348,000	1,613,000	1,466,000	1,365,000	1,550,000
Tire covers	.....	.....	.....	1,476,000	1,530,000
Wire of base metals, coated or covered	794,000	803,000	1,074,000	1,130,000	1,495,000
Metal-working machinery	349,000	593,000	533,000	918,000	1,404,000
Household and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron, worked	1,031,000	1,180,000	1,411,000	1,294,000	1,403,000
Woolen velvet and plush	515,000	583,000	661,000	917,000	1,396,000
Silk and woolen rags; cloth list	1,242,000	1,018,000	904,000	1,103,000	1,387,000
Chemically prepared wood pulp, straw, esparto, and other fibrous materials	1,472,000	1,194,000	1,081,000	1,245,000	1,372,000
Tin foil	644,000	717,000	956,000	922,000	1,298,000
Passenger automobiles	523,000	857,000	1,316,000	1,737,000	1,215,000
Varnished leather	826,000	1,414,000	1,181,000	1,409,000	1,212,000
Kitchen utensils and other wares, cast-brass	755,000	804,000	873,000	867,000	1,189,000
Lamp chimneys	754,000	970,000	1,027,000	942,000	1,170,000
Incandescent mantles, annealed	566,000	579,000	1,070,000	1,210,000	1,165,000
Colored paper; varnished paper	893,000	945,000	952,000	895,000	1,144,000
Goat and kid skin, dressed	806,000	629,000	643,000	815,000	1,129,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

UNITED KINGDOM—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Combs, buttons, etc., celluloid				$583,000	$1,116,000
Tableware, white china	$955,000	$1,012,000	$1,089,000	1,101,000	1,088,000
Electric incandescent lamps	2,329,000	3,329,000	1,908,000	1,539,000	1,061,000
Glacé gloves	752,000	771,000	877,000	939,000	1,031,000
Wire nails	705,000	780,000	940,000	898,000	1,023,000
Wheat flour	2,010,000	1,662,000	731,000	899,000	1,032,000
Printing paper	777,000	812,000	768,000	669,000	1,001,000

UNITED STATES.

Total exports	$144,295,000	$150,592,000	$152,268,000	$166,026,000	$169,738,000
Muriate of potash	4,562,000	6,233,000	7,951,000	6,541,000	8,795,000
Toys and Christmas-tree decorations	5,936,000	6,742,000	6,938,000	6,686,000	7,736,000
Coal-tar dyes	7,081,000	6,676,000	6,110,000	7,713,000	6,717,000
Potash salts; abraum salts	2,293,000	4,291,000	3,991,000	4,118,000	5,577,000
Fur skins, raw (except skins of hares and rabbits)	3,030,000	4,258,000	4,705,000	4,563,000	3,832,000
Calf skins, raw	3,686,000	1,991,000	5,415,000	5,397,000	3,495,000
Glacé gloves	3,801,000	3,159,000	2,571,000	3,060,000	3,508,000
Cotton lace	4,119,000	3,819,000	4,176,000	4,594,000	3,032,000
Palm-nut oil	1,646,000	1,865,000	2,644,000	2,797,000	2,836,000
Tableware, china	2,875,000	2,934,000	3,075,000	2,862,000	2,573,000
India rubber, raw or refined	2,590,000	4,589,000	4,585,000	4,854,000	2,546,000
Cotton stockings and socks	7,074,000	4,911,000	3,233,000	3,143,000	2,536,000
Cotton gloves and hair nets	1,730,000	2,134,000	1,183,000	1,780,000	2,548,000
Fur skins, wholly or partly dressed	3,092,000	2,153,000	2,071,000	2,160,000	2,299,000
Sulphate of potash	1,357,000	1,563,000	2,251,000	1,460,000	2,187,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	4,283,000	3,130,000	1,554,000	1,398,000	1,963,000
Rags and waste for paper mills	927,000	1,471,000	1,641,000	2,142,000	1,750,000
Cutlery, fine	1,428,000	1,275,000	1,319,000	1,541,000	1,681,000
Metalloids, acids, salts, not specially mentioned	759,000	1,172,000	1,402,000	1,591,000	1,675,000
Chemically prepared wood pulp, straw, esparto, and other fibrous materials	1,555,000	1,979,000	1,722,000	1,791,000	1,617,000
Glove leather (glacé)	1,629,000	1,120,000	1,059,000	1,555,000	1,516,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, etc	6,000	22,000	16,000	25,000	1,483,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	226,000	429,000	865,000	1,698,000	1,456,000
Close-woven tissues, wholly or partly of silk, not specially mentioned	2,401,000	4,162,000	2,293,000	1,345,000	1,433,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	729,000	849,000	790,000	1,237,000	1,435,000
Pearled grain, grits, groats	1,065,000	975,000	640,000	1,162,000	1,339,000
Alizarin dyes, various	770,000	340,000	993,000	1,296,000	1,066,000
Clothing, millinery, and other sewn articles	922,000	1,449,000	1,716,000	1,499,000	1,351,000
Platinum and platinum metals	1,150,000	1,247,000	1,082,000	942,000	1,286,000
Silk trimmings; chenille	2,670,000	3,215,000	3,208,000	2,563,000	1,224,000
Bristles	1,000,000	1,069,000	849,000	1,199,000	1,206,000
Artificial flowers, stalks, fruits	1,191,000	1,194,000	951,000	1,019,000	1,158,000
Alfalfa seed	831,000	602,000	372,000	1,147,000	1,071,000
Figured close-woven tissues of linen, jute, hemp (except damask)	814,000	1,126,000	1,080,000	845,000	1,079,000
Skins of hares and rabbits, raw	1,035,000	982,000	1,154,000	1,565,000	1,051,000
Hops; hop meal	687,000	883,000	1,164,000	1,081,000	1,031,000
Indigo	1,255,000	1,287,000	999,000	1,221,000	1,002,000
Tin, crude and scrap	855,000	1,598,000	1,486,000	1,194,000	988,000
Velvet, plush, and similar tissues, partly of silk (except ribbons)	148,000	376,000	420,000	628,000	986,000
Sugar-beet seed	733,000	463,000	728,000	751,000	961,000
Embroidery on nonsilken foundation	1,182,000	1,328,000	1,428,000	1,805,000	925,000
Books	895,000	803,000	928,000	995,000	924,000
Cattle hides, raw	1,332,000	1,185,000	891,000	1,912,000	916,000
Volatile oils of lemons, aniseed, etc.; oil of camphor; menthol	250,000	321,000	282,000	301,000	875,000
Cyanide of potassium; cyanide of sodium	417,000	433,000	490,000	771,000	835,000

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GERMANY'S EXPORT TRADE, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

URUGUAY.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$5,539,000	$6,749,000	$7,831,000	$9,161,000	$8,531,000
Sugar, refined	899,000	1,110,000	1,253,000	1,399,000	1,357,000
Cotton stockings and socks	337,000	261,000	303,000	360,000	383,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	247,000	337,000	391,000	349,000	331,000
Woolen clothing for women and girls	44,000	84,000	111,000	139,000	257,000
Galvanized-iron wire	211,000	243,000	240,000	296,000	216,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	158,000	178,000	188,000	191,000	214,000
Silk, manufactures of	129,000	160,000	167,000	207,000	189,000
Passenger automobiles	.....	8,000	120,000	181,000	172,000
Rice, polished	153,000	210,000	240,000	92,000	161,000
Knitted and net wares, wool	59,000	67,000	104,000	109,000	119,000
Electric cables	83,000	283,000	109,000	161,000	102,000
Cranes	.....	.....	.....	89,000	99,000
Dynamos, electric motors, transformers	48,000	63,000	61,000	93,000	97,000
Lanterns, lamps, railway-track appliances, and other wares of malleable iron	70,000	141,000	81,000	101,000	97,000
Cotton lace	53,000	55,000	44,000	66,000	94,000
Cotton clothing for women and girls	20,000	47,000	59,000	116,000	94,000
Gold, articles of	174,000	49,000	69,000	78,000	94,000
Machinery for breweries	6,000	1,000	35,000	31,000	92,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	50,000	59,000	93,000	114,000	91,000
Cement	71,000	83,000	159,000	142,000	91,000
Electrical appliances for illumination, transmission of power, or electrolysis	61,000	81,000	64,000	111,000	87,000
Rails for railways	31,000	41,000	92,000	75,000	86,000
Malleable iron in bars (except girders)	23,000	17,000	36,000	110,000	85,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	36,000	89,000	105,000	66,000	78,000
Upper leather	17,000	42,000	48,000	76,000	76,000
Toys	56,000	68,000	94,000	132,000	74,000
Articles of plated silver	45,000	48,000	67,000	93,000	73,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	35,000	46,000	49,000	62,000	69,000
Pianos	62,000	105,000	97,000	96,000	67,000
Electric incandescent lamps	42,000	70,000	84,000	84,000	66,000
Cast brass, articles of	45,000	48,000	48,000	62,000	57,000
Coated wire	46,000	52,000	59,000	96,000	55,000
Tire covers	.....	.....	.....	42,000	52,000
Cartridges, filled	53,000	95,000	7,000	22,000	51,000
Varnished wares of copper, tombac, and brass	16,000	24,000	40,000	44,000	51,000

VENEZUELA.

Total exports	$1,259,000	$1,605,000	$2,215,000	$2,450,000	$2,216,000
Rice, polished	176,000	183,000	280,000	283,000	165,000
Cotton tissues, dyed, printed, woven in colors	203,000	258,000	305,000	184,000	148,000
House and kitchen utensils, sheet-iron	35,000	60,000	93,000	121,000	104,000
Machinery	31,000	35,000	72,000	80,000	101,000
Beer in bottles	26,000	59,000	74,000	86,000	91,000
Hollow glass, plain, natural color	15,000	35,000	59,000	125,000	90,000
Cotton stockings and socks	45,000	67,000	95,000	109,000	71,000
Silk, manufactures of	34,000	70,000	77,000	64,000	64,000
Varnished leather	13,000	17,000	25,000	41,000	47,000
Copper, manufactures of	17,000	17,000	21,000	31,000	42,000
Woolen tissues (suitings, etc.)	30,000	24,000	36,000	34,000	41,000
Cement	16,000	24,000	25,000	39,000	38,000
Rails for railways	.....	6,000	.....	10,000	38,000
Cutlery, fine	17,000	20,000	35,000	38,000	32,000
Scythes, sickles, feed cutters	37,000	29,000	27,000	30,000	28,000
Saddlers' and trunk makers' wares	2,000	5,000	4,000	12,000	28,000
Electrotechnical products	31,000	6,000	3,000	12,000	28,000
Vehicles and vessels	1,000	1,000	2,000	6,000	27,000
Stoneware, colored	13,000	12,000	13,000	28,000	26,000
Toys	17,000	19,000	29,000	34,000	24,000
Prepared medicaments	10,000	10,000	16,000	15,000	22,000
Linen twine	17,000	20,000	19,000	25,000	22,000

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GENERAL STATISTICS.

POPULATION OF GERMAN STATES ON DECEMBER 1, 1910.

States.	Population.	States.	Population.	States.	Population.
Prussia	40,165,000	Oldenburg	483,000	Reuss, Younger Branch	158,000
Bavaria	6,887,000	Brunswick	494,000	Schaumburg-Lippe	47,000
Saxony, Kingdom of	4,807,000	Saxe-Meiningen	279,000	Lippe	151,000
Wurttemberg	2,437,000	Saxe-Altenburg	216,000	Lubeck	127,000
Baden	2,143,000	Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	257,000	Bremen	298,000
Hesse	1,282,000	Anhalt	331,000	Hamburg	1,015,000
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	640,000	Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	90,000	Alsace-Lorraine	1,874,000
Saxony, Grand Duchy of	417,000	Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	101,000	Germany	64,926,000
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	106,000	Waldeck	62,000		
		Reuss, Elder Branch	73,000		

GERMAN CITIES AND TOWNS HAVING 50,000 OR MORE INHABITANTS IN 1910.

Cities.	Population.	Cities.	Population.	Cities.	Population.
Berlin	2,071,000	Cassel	153,000	Borbeck	71,000
Hamburg	931,000	Brunswick	144,000	Pforzheim	69,000
Munich	596,000	Bochum	137,000	Metz	69,000
Leipzig	590,000	Karlsruhe	134,000	Frankfort on the Oder	68,000
Dresden	548,000	Crefeld	129,000	Beuthen	68,000
Cologne	517,000	Plauen	121,000	Harburg	67,000
Breslau	512,000	Mulheim on the Ruhr	113,000	Gleiwitz	67,000
Frankfort on the Main	415,000	Erfurt	111,000	Liegnitz	67,000
Dusseldorf	359,000	Mayence	111,000	Furth	67,000
Nuremberg	333,000	Berlin-Wilmersdorf	110,000	Munchen Gladbach	66,000
Charlottenburg	306,000	Wiesbaden	109,000	Osnabruck	66,000
Hanover	302,000	Saarbrucken	105,000	Rostock	65,000
Essen	295,000	Augsburg	102,000	Zabrze	63,000
Chemnitz	288,000	Hamborn	102,000	Berlin-Steglitz	63,000
Stuttgart	286,000	Lubeck	99,000	Potsdam	62,000
Magdeburg	280,000	Mulhausen in Alsace	95,000	Buer	62,000
Bremen	247,000	Munster in Westphalia	90,000	Flensburg	61,000
Konigsberg	246,000	Oberhausen	90,000	Elbing	59,000
Neukolln (Rixdorf)	237,000	Hagen in Westphalia	89,000	Bromberg	58,000
Stettin	236,000	Bonn	88,000	Herne	57,000
Duisburg	229,000	Darmstadt	87,000	Dessau	57,000
Dortmund	214,000	Gorlitz	86,000	Coblenz	56,000
Kiel	212,000	Spandau	85,000	Ulm	56,000
Mannheim	194,000	Wurzburg	84,000	Heidelberg	56,000
Halle on the Saale	181,000	Freiburg in Baden	83,000	Kaiserslautern	55,000
Strassburg in Alsace	179,000	Ludwigshafen on the Rhine	83,000	Recklinghausen	54,000
Berlin-Schoneberg	173,000	Berlin-Lichtenberg	81,000	Brandenburg	54,000
Altona	173,000	Bielefeld	78,000	Mulheim on the Rhine	53,000
Danzig	170,000	Offenbach	76,000	Ratisbon	53,000
Elberfeld	170,000	Zwickau	74,000	Berlin-Rummelsburg	52,000
Gelsenkirchen	170,000	Linden in Hanover	73,000	Solingen	51,000
Barmen	169,000	Konigshutte	73,000	Hildesheim	50,000
Posen	157,000	Remscheid	72,000		
Aix la Chapelle	156,000				

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Area of Principal Crops.

[1 hectare=2.47 acres.]

Years.	Rye.	Wheat.	Spelt and emmer.	Barley.	Oats.	Potatoes.	Hay.
	Hectares.	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*
1904	6,099,270	1,917,513	312,622	1,627,078	4,189,681	3,287,861	5,946,990
1905	6,145,583	1,927,127	333,383	1,633,230	4,182,054	3,316,593	5,960,226
1906	6,101,569	1,935,993	320,641	1,644,519	4,221,533	3,302,001	5,951,899
1907	6,042,580	1,746,787	305,841	1,701,707	4,377,115	3,297,483	5,970,724
1908	6,119,933	1,884,600	304,565	1,628,967	4,275,305	3,292,647	5,967,314
1909	6,130,732	1,831,383	299,276	1,646,354	4,309,967	3,323,733	5,961,536
1910	6,186,775	1,942,916	294,583	1,570,435	4,289,387	3,296,219	5,965,017
1911	6,135,617	1,974,197	281,826	1,585,049	4,327,701	3,321,479	5,931,798
1912	6,268,251	1,925,746	282,678	1,589,773	4,387,404	3,341,606	5,920,519
1913	6,414,143	1,974,098	272,493	1,654,020	4,438,209	3,412,201	5,923,647
1914	6,298,956	1,996,100	269,135	1,581,999	4,388,146	3,386,098	5,784,964

Yield of Principal Crops.

[1 metric ton=2,204.6 pounds.]

Years.	Rye.	Wheat.	Spelt and emmer.	Barley.	Oats.	Potatoes.	Hay.
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
1904	10,060,762	3,804,828	453,827	2,948,184	6,936,003	36,287,192	21,507,119
1905	9,606,827	3,699,882	487,058	2,921,953	6,546,502	48,323,353	26,265,417
1906	9,625,738	3,939,563	458,954	3,111,309	8,431,379	42,936,702	28,732,930
1907	9,757,859	3,479,324	458,090	3,497,745	9,149,138	45,538,299	24,911,988
1908	10,736,874	3,767,767	444,198	3,059,885	7,694,833	46,342,726	27,076,097
1909	11,348,415	3,755,747	498,364	3,495,616	9,125,816	46,706,252	22,140,927
1910	10,511,160	3,861,479	387,931	2,902,938	7,901,376	43,468,395	28,250,115
1911	10,866,116	4,066,335	402,729	3,159,915	7,704,101	34,374,225	19,975,324
1912	11,598,289	4,367,624	407,032	3,481,974	8,520,183	50,209,466	27,681,860
1913	12,222,394	4,655,956	438,469	3,673,254	9,713,965	54,121,146	29,184,994
1914	10,426,718	3,971,995	370,565	3,137,983	9,038,185	45,569,559	29,156,024

Domestic Animals.

Animals.	1900	1907	1914
	Number.	*Number.*	*Number.*
Horses	4,195,361	4,345,047	a 3,441,307
Cattle, total	18,939,692	20,630,544	21,817,375
Cows and heifers	10,458,631	10,966,998	11,316,567
Swine	16,807,014	22,146,532	25,339,350
Sheep	9,692,501	7,703,710	5,451,570
Goats	3,266,997	3,533,970	3,534,327

a Exclusive of Army horses.

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GERMAN INDUSTRIES IN 1907: NUMBER AND SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENTS AND NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.[a]

Industrial groups.	Establishments employing—						Total.	
	1 to 5 persons.		6 to 50 persons.		51 or more persons.			
	Establishments.	Persons.	Establishments.	Persons.	Establishments.	Persons.	Establishments.	Persons.
Horticulture and animal industries	49,200	96,378	3,970	40,820	146	16,913	53,316	154,111
Horticulture	30,845	68,754	3,730	38,198	121	12,806	34,696	119,758
Animal industries, including fisheries	18,355	27,624	240	2,622	25	4,107	18,620	34,353
Manufacturing industries	1,870,261	3,200,282	187,074	2,714,664	29,033	4,937,927	2,086,368	10,852,873
Mining, metallurgy, salt works	2,432	4,903	1,159	23,949	1,675	832,051	5,266	860,903
Stones and earths	27,835	62,359	16,869	303,830	2,922	404,374	47,626	770,563
Metal industries	133,611	272,187	16,060	224,810	2,832	440,023	152,523	937,020
Machinery, instruments, and apparatus	79,285	136,516	11,798	194,927	3,409	788,039	94,492	1,120,282
Chemical industries	7,723	18,033	2,264	34,101	575	120,307	10,562	172,441
Charcoal, gas, candles, soap, oils, fats, varnishes	3,538	7,966	2,227	36,426	372	48,618	6,137	93,010
Textile industries	122,039	172,058	10,108	181,834	4,217	734,388	136,364	1,088,280
Paper industry	14,810	28,225	4,020	67,968	957	134,732	19,787	230,925
Leather industry	45,668	83,961	3,686	49,723	419	73,289	49,773	206,973
Manufactures of wood, cork, straw, horn, combs, brushes, umbrellas	183,839	327,148	19,942	271,813	1,637	172,098	205,418	771,059
Foods, beverages, tobacco	277,589	615,847	29,951	353,745	2,296	270,353	309,836	1,239,945
Clothing and footwear	664,514	926,751	17,639	209,003	1,390	168,099	683,543	1,303,853
Laundries, baths, cleaning and dyeing, barbers and hairdressers	121,894	186,916	3,632	45,344	212	22,735	125,738	254,995
Building trades	162,079	315,309	41,007	615,131	5,332	633,154	208,418	1,563,594
Type casting, wood engraving, printing, photography	12,368	26,796	5,767	90,535	751	91,521	18,886	208,852
Art industries	11,037	15,307	925	11,525	37	3,346	11,999	30,178
Trade and transportation	1,204,737	2,056,916	76,366	888,931	2,828	395,185	1,283,931	3,341,032
Trade	790,778	1,299,939	49,756	580,519	1,606	183,176	842,140	2,063,634
Insurance	22,304	27,048	1,469	19,952	151	22,027	23,924	69,027
Transportation	80,392	142,019	7,062	94,106	816	168,643	88,290	404,768
Hotels, restaurants, public houses	311,263	587,910	18,059	194,354	255	21,339	329,577	803,603
Music, theaters, public exhibitions	21,936	29,657	2,712	44,423	115	13,826	24,763	87,906
Total	3,146,134	5,383,233	270,122	3,688,838	32,122	5,363,851	3,448,378	14,435,922

[a] "Persons employed" includes all persons engaged in the industry: Owners, superintendents, officials, clerks, skilled and unskilled operatives.

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GERMAN INDUSTRIES IN 1882, 1895, AND 1907: NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS AND NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED, BY SEX.

Industrial divisions.	1882	1895	1907
Horticulture and animal industries:			
Number of establishments	31,886	42,321	53,316
Persons employed—			
Male	59,502	84,422	117,193
Female	7,916	18,706	36,918
Manufacturing industries:			
Number of establishments	2,270,339	2,146,972	2,086,368
Persons employed—			
Male	4,766,601	6,442,164	8,679,835
Female	1,167,062	1,558,339	2,173,038
Trade and transportation:			
Number of establishments	703,232	955,684	1,283,931
Persons employed—			
Male	1,005,519	1,403,358	2,040,524
Female	334,189	762,280	1,300,508
Music, theaters, public exhibitions:			
Number of establishments	(a)	(a)	24,763
Persons employed—			
Male	(a)	(a)	68,839
Female	(a)	(a)	19,067
All industries:			
Number of establishments	3,005,457	3,144,977	3,448,378
Persons employed—			
Male	5,831,622	7,929,944	10,906,391
Female	1,509,167	2,339,325	3,529,531

(a) No census taken.

GERMAN INDUSTRIES IN 1913: ESTABLISHMENTS SUBJECT TO INSPECTION [a] AND NUMBER OF CHILD AND ADULT WORKERS EMPLOYED THEREIN.

Industrial groups.	Number of establishments.	Employees.	
		Children under 16.	Adults.
Mining, metallurgy, salt works	4,275	47,116	1,149,670
Stones and earths	21,708	37,929	609,679
Metal industries	25,334	77,294	602,813
Machinery, instruments, and apparatus	23,291	91,086	1,082,395
Chemical industries	2,911	7,875	172,693
Charcoal, gas, candles, soap, oils, fats, varnishes	3,776	2,874	78,945
Textile industries	17,400	94,194	861,882
Paper industry	4,391	19,186	179,828
Leather industry	3,163	7,836	112,966
Manufactures of wood, cork, straw, horn, combs, brushes, umbrellas	38,723	34,752	419,071
Foods, beverages, tobacco	97,985	54,348	659,570
Clothing and footwear	51,914	58,791	372,335
Laundries, baths, cleaning and dyeing, barbers and hairdressers	4,302	2,923	52,660
Building yards	14,221	13,303	263,589
Type casting, wood engraving, printing, photography	8,912	20,563	179,634
Other industries	2,218	936	17,437
Total	324,524	571,006	6,815,167

[a] The following classes of establishments are subject to inspection: Establishments employing 10 or more operatives; brickyards, mines, and quarries employing at least 5 workers; foundries, ore-dressing establishments, building yards, shipyards, tobacco factories, even though employing less than 10 workers; motor-power shops and shops under special regulations.

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GERMAN RAILROADS: LENGTH OF LINE IN 1913 AND 1903.

[1 kilometer=0.621 mile.]

States.	Main lines.		Secondary lines.		Total length.
	Owned or operated by State.	Private.	Owned or operated by State.	Private.	
	Kilometers.	*Kilometers.*	*Kilometers.*	*Kilometers.*	*Kilometers.*
Prussia	19,987.4	172.9	15,313.7	2,036.4	37,510.4
Bavaria	4,819.7	6.0	3,295.6	235.9	8,357.2
Saxony, Kingdom of	1,782.5	.....	873.9	20.2	2,676.6
Wurttemburg	1,466.5	.....	364.6	162.5	1,993.6
Baden	1,569.1	15.6	286.9	220.1	2,091.7
Hesse	892.3	.....	471.0	130.2	1,493.5
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	493.6	.....	663.5	9.1	1,166.2
Saxony, Grand Duchy of	216.9	.....	193.0	51.1	461.0
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	150.7	.....	9.3	121.3	281.3
Oldenburg	286.3	26.9	357.8	13.9	684.9
Brunswick	342.0	.....	97.5	208.3	647.8
Saxe-Meiningen	173.9	.....	135.5	2.1	311.5
Saxe-Altenburg	106.1	.....	92.1	.....	198.2
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	142.9	.....	152.5	7.6	303.0
Anhalt	214.8	.....	53.4	25.9	294.1
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	60.8	.....	14.6	72.2	147.6
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	52.3	.....	70.4	7.2	129.9
Waldeck	3.9	.....	69.4	.....	73.3
Reuss, Elder Branch	25.3	.....	18.0	.....	43.3
Reuss, Younger Branch	44.8	.....	64.1	.....	108.9
Schaumburg-Lippe	24.3	.....	.....	13.9	38.2
Lippe	43.9	.....	50.9	0.8	95.6
Lubeck	13.3	45.8	.....	19.6	78.7
Bremen	58.8	.....	3.4	0.1	62.3
Hamburg	54.1	9.7	6.3	2.2	72.3
Alsace-Lorraine	1,355.4	.....	466.7	15.6	1,837.7
Total, 1913	[a] 34,381.6	276.9	[b] 23,124.1	3,376.2	[c] 61,158.8
Total, 1903	31,823.6	834.8	17,045.5	3,110.3	52,814.2

[a] Includes 2.1 kilometers of private lines operated for the account of the State.
[b] Includes 22.6 kilometers of private lines operated for the account of the State.
[c] Exclusive of 352.3 kilometers of line on foreign territory, operated by German State Railway Administration.

GERMAN RAILROADS: CAPITAL INVESTED, OPERATING REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, NUMBER OF OFFICIALS AND EMPLOYEES, 1904–1913.

[1 mark=23.8 cents.]

Years.	Capital invested at end of year.	Operating revenue.	Operating expenditure.	Excess of revenue over expenditure.		Average number of officials and employees.
				Amount.	Per cent of capital invested.	
	Marks.	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*		
1904	14,180,000,000	2,267,000,000	1,433,000,000	834,000,000	6.00	579,655
1905	14,552,000,000	2,437,000,000	1,541,000,000	896,000,000	6.29	603,755
1906	15,041,000,000	2,628,000,000	1,697,000,000	931,000,000	6.35	645,434
1907	15,635,000,000	2,745,000,000	1,894,000,000	851,000,000	5.60	692,408
1908	16,266,000,000	2,698,000,000	1,985,000,000	713,000,000	4.51	695,794
1909	16,870,000,000	2,843,000,000	2,007,000,000	836,000,000	5.09	687,706
1910	17,348,000,000	3,036,000,000	2,063,000,000	973,000,000	5.74	696,952
1911	17,833,000,000	3,271,000,000	2,152,000,000	1,119,000,000	6.41	713,187
1912	18,457,000,000	3,477,000,000	2,346,000,000	1,131,000,000	6.29	740,249
1913	19,245,000,000	3,556,000,000	2,490,000,000	1,066,000,000	5.70	782,731

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GERMAN RAILROADS: NUMBER OF LOCOMOTIVES AND CARS, 1904–1913.

Years.	Locomotives.[a]	Passenger cars.[b]	Baggage cars.[c]	Freight cars.		
				Open.	Covered.	Total.
1904	21,490	43,394	11,209	300,580	125,498	426,078
1905	22,094	44,924	11,701	307,611	134,763	442,374
1906	23,022	47,057	12,528	325,118	141,946	467,064
1907	24,447	50,097	13,762	345,170	152,753	497,923
1908	25,883	53,586	14,797	362,644	159,102	521,746
1909	26,889	55,923	15,712	378,424	163,829	542,253
1910	27,498	57,644	16,404	394,003	171,937	565,940
1911	28,088	59,857	16,809	413,161	183,602	596,763
1912	28,788	62,649	17,428	432,332	195,071	627,403
1913	29,990	65,961	18,673	459,286	207,762	667,048

[a] Includes locomotive cars to the following number for the respective years: 72, 88, 167, 188, 249, 277, 341, 387, 422, 470.
[b] Includes locomotive cars adapted for carrying passengers.
[c] Includes mail cars owned by the railroads.

TRAFFIC ON RAILROADS: STATISTICS OF PASSENGER AND FREIGHT SERVICES, 1904–1913.

[1 mark=$0.238; 1 pfennig=$0.00238; 1 metric ton=2,204.6 pounds; 1 kilometer=0.621 mile.]

Years.	Freight traffic.				Passenger traffic.	
	Tons carried.	Tons carried 1 kilometer.	Receipts.		Passengers carried.	Receipts.
			Total.	Per ton-kilometer.[a]		
			Marks.	*Pfennigs.*		*Marks.*
1904	408,221,000	41,190,000,000	1,322,700,000	3.53	1,030,000,000	616,600,000
1905	444,037,000	44,567,000,000	1,424,500,000	3.52	1,116,000,000	660,900,000
1906	479,227,000	48,297,000,000	1,531,300,000	3.50	1,209,000,000	709,000,000
1907	514,908,000	51,256,000,000	1,611,400,000	3.49	1,295,000,000	718,100,000
1908	496,920,000	49,864,000,000	1,548,200,000	3.52	1,362,000,000	742,100,000
1909	526,213,000	52,812,000,000	1,639,200,000	3.51	1,470,000,000	793,100,000
1910	575,330,000	56,276,000,000	1,758,300,000	3.53	1,541,000,000	835,000,000
1911	616,772,000	61,870,000,000	1,909,800,000	3.47	1,643,000,000	888,700,000
1912	667,707,000	66,021,000,000	2,018,100,000	3.42	1,744,000,000	944,200,000
1913	676,627,000	67,515,000,000	2,046,200,000	3.44	1,798,000,000	975,800,000

[a] Calculated on paid freight only (59,521,000,000 tons in 1913).

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Traffic on Railroads in 1913, by Articles.

Articles.	Domestic traffic.	Foreign traffic.		Transit.	Total.
		Outward.	Inward.		
Animals:	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*
Horses, mules, asses	692,000	11,000	57,000	.....	760,000
Cattle	6,730,000	12,000	99,000	10,000	6,851,000
Sheep	1,883,000	6,000	9,000	.....	1,898,000
Swine	15,983,000	4,000	128,000	.....	16,115,000
Poultry and other	8,501,000	163,000	10,960,000	.....	19,624,000
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
Asphalt, rosin, tar, and pitch	2,086,000	86,000	76,000	1,000	2,249,000
Bones	150,000	7,000	19,000	.....	176,000
Breadstuffs:					
Barley	3,696,000	17,000	194,000	2,000	3,909,000
Bran	2,897,000	16,000	603,000	4,000	3,520,000
Buckwheat, millet, legumes	276,000	13,000	265,000	1,000	555,000
Corn	759,000	83,000	45,000	.....	887,000
Oats	2,166,000	196,000	24,000	13,000	2,399,000
Rice, rice meal, bran	251,000	16,000	25,000	2,000	294,000
Rye	3,110,000	192,000	8,000	3,000	3,313,000
Wheat and spelt	3,411,000	430,000	30,000	4,000	3,875,000
Wheat and other flour	4,454,000	82,000	20,000	5,000	4,561,000
Cement; blocks, etc., of cement	6,816,000	168,000	84,000	19,000	7,087,000
Chemicals:					
Acids—					
Nitric and muriatic	273,000	15,000	10,000	.....	298,000
Sulphuric	1,055,000	59,000	93,000	.....	1,207,000
Barks; tanning materials	212,000	19,000	69,000	1,000	301,000
Bone black	5,000	1,000	2,000	.....	8,000
Chemicals and drugs, n. e. s.	2,018,000	217,000	85,000	9,000	2,329,000
Soda—					
Raw, calcined	612,000	29,000	1,000	1,000	643,000
Caustic	81,000	11,000	1,000	.....	93,000
Clay and cement pipes	903,000	26,000	4,000	2,000	935,000
Coal, coke, and peat:					
Brown coal	12,096,000	34,000	5,520,000	65,000	17,715,000
Brown-coal briquets	19,757,000	756,000	86,000	1,000	20,600,000
Coal	103,258,000	23,035,000	956,000	166,000	127,415,000
Coal briquets	4,236,000	1,593,000	19,000	7,000	5,855,000
Coke	17,173,000	8,925,000	593,000	4,000	26,695,000
Peat; charcoal	510,000	38,000	17,000	.....	565,000
Cocoa, coffee, tea	184,000	13,000	21,000	3,000	221,000
Cotton, raw and waste	729,000	231,000	113,000	9,000	1,082,000
Dyewoods and extracts	14,000	4,000	2,000	.....	20,000
Earthenware and china	649,000	60,000	28,000	5,000	742,000
Earths of all kinds	38,319,000	649,000	552,000	28,000	39,548,000
Fertilizers	14,716,000	1,247,000	386,000	4,000	16,353,000
Fibers, vegetable:					
Flax, hemp, tow	136,000	21,000	77,000	4,000	238,000
Jute	94,000	21,000	2,000	.....	117,000
Fish and shellfish	320,000	141,000	60,000	2,000	523,000
Fruits, plants, greens	1,816,000	50,000	1,084,000	12,000	2,962,000
Glass and glassware	1,092,000	101,000	38,000	19,000	1,250,000
Hides, leather, furs	547,000	60,000	86,000	3,000	696,000
Hops	24,000	6,000	6,000	1,000	37,000
Iron and steel, manufactures of:					
Axles, tires, etc.	524,000	86,000	4,000	.....	614,000
Bars, hoops, plates	8,494,000	1,571,000	268,000	23,000	10,356,000
Blooms	2,819,000	334,000	292,000	.....	3,445,000
Boilers, machinery, etc.	2,380,000	587,000	64,000	21,000	3,052,000
Manufactures, n. e. s.	2,777,000	311,000	35,000	7,000	3,130,000
Pig iron	5,021,000	534,000	1,073,000	10,000	6,638,000
Rails for railways	3,059,000	133,000	37,000	1,000	3,230,000
Railroad ties	819,000	26,000	40,000	.....	885,000
Scrap	4,879,000	150,000	220,000	4,000	5,253,000
Tubes and posts	1,290,000	333,000	7,000	4,000	1,634,000
Wire	1,111,000	249,000	21,000	1,000	1,382,000
Lead, and manufactures of	328,000	30,000	8,000	.....	366,000
Lime	4,443,000	107,000	521,000	3,000	5,074,000
Malt	590,000	14,000	56,000	30,000	690,000
Meats	130,000	2,000	44,000	3,000	179,000
Metals, common, and manufactures of	446,000	44,000	28,000	1,000	519,000
Oil cake and meal	1,548,000	51,000	340,000	2,000	1,941,000
Oils:					
Animal oils, fats, tallow	985,000	39,000	57,000	3,000	1,084,000
Mineral	1,942,000	148,000	273,000	56,000	2,419,000

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TRAFFIC ON RAILROADS IN 1913, BY ARTICLES—Continued.

Articles.	Domestic traffic.	Foreign traffic.		Transit.	Total.
		Outward.	Inward.		
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
Ores:					
Copper	145,000	13,000	30,000	.....	188,000
Iron (except pyrites)	15,272,000	1,480,000	4,071,000	.....	20,823,000
Lead, zinc, nickel	454,000	44,000	88,000	2,000	588,000
Other	2,735,000	224,000	552,000	2,000	3,513,000
Paper and pasteboard	2,404,000	79,000	26,000	4,000	2,513,000
Paper stock: Rags	596,000	50,000	62,000	2,000	710,000
Roofing felt, etc	295,000	4,000	1,000	.....	300,000
Salt	2,025,000	144,000	7,000	1,000	2,177,000
Seeds:					
Linseed, oil seeds	239,000	8,000	67,000	.....	314,000
Other	222,000	32,000	38,000	3,000	295,000
Spirits, wines, malt liquors:					
Beer	2,081,000	85,000	77,000	13,000	2,256,000
Spirits; vinegar	608,000	3,000	7,000	8,000	626,000
Wine	286,000	6,000	60,000	1,000	353,000
Starch; starch sugar	360,000	9,000	6,000	.....	375,000
Stone, and manufactures of:					
Marble and other	880,000	25,000	65,000	6,000	976,000
Paving, broken, bricks	48,505,000	829,000	284,000	23,000	49,641,000
Slate	138,000	3,000	28,000	1,000	170,000
Sugar:					
Raw	2,065,000	.....	5,000	2,000	2,072,000
Refined	1,166,000	39,000	27,000	62,000	1,294,000
Sirup and molasses	423,000	.....	7,000	.....	430,000
Tobacco, unmanufactured	119,000	10,000	26,000	4,000	159,000
Vegetables:					
Beets	12,081,000	25,000	36,000	12,000	12,154,000
Potatoes	4,066,000	154,000	295,000	9,000	4,524,000
Waste of horns, hoofs, etc	173,000	14,000	32,000	.....	219,000
Wood, and manufactures of:					
Cabinet woods	228,000	18,000	8,000	.....	254,000
Firewood; mine props	8,472,000	176,000	737,000	2,000	9,387,000
Logs and round timber	4,379,000	59,000	700,000	1,000	5,139,000
Lumber	7,762,000	110,000	405,000	24,000	8,301,000
Wood pulp; straw pulp	1,335,000	75,000	15,000	6,000	1,431,000
Wool	306,000	66,000	65,000	16,000	453,000
Yarn and twist	486,000	32,000	42,000	13,000	573,000
Zinc, raw and scrap	374,000	77,000	49,000	2,000	502,000
Other goods	13,218,000	680,000	652,000	494,000	14,644,000
Total	[a]433,608,000	[a]48,002,000	[a]23,393,000	[a] 887,000	[a]505,890,000
Including goods—					
Carried from seaports	11,108,000	862,000	.....	.....	11,970,000
Carried to seaports	16,368,000	.....	1,069,000	.....	17,437,000
Carried between seaports	1,800,000	.....	.....	.....	1,800,000

[a] The live weight of animals has been calculated as follows: 1 horse, etc.—450 kilos; 1 head of cattle—300 kilos; 1 sheep—40 kilos; 1 swine—90 kilos; 1 head of poultry, etc.—4 kilos.

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Traffic on Railroads in 1913, by Districts.

No.	Districts.	Domestic traffic.			Foreign traffic.		Total (except transit).
		Local.	With other districts.		Outward.	Inward.	
			Dispatched.	Received.			
		Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
1a	East Prussia (except ports)	2,254,000	1,485,000	2,466,000	203,000	113,000	8,775,000
1b	West Prussia (except ports)	2,427,000	1,630,000	3,011,000	22,000	166,000	9,683,000
2a	East Prussian ports	19,000	896,000	1,142,000	89,000	468,000	2,633,000
2b	West Prussian ports	152,000	1,015,000	1,376,000	203,000	250,000	3,148,000
3	Pomerania (except ports)	1,900,000	1,998,000	3,731,000	5,000	7,000	9,541,000
4	Pomeranian ports	238,000	1,877,000	2,211,000	159,000	46,000	4,769,000
5	Mecklenburg (except ports)	1,116,000	1,318,000	1,692,000	11,000	6,000	5,259,000
6	Ports, Rostock to Flensburg	55,000	1,114,000	2,085,000	31,000	60,000	3,400,000
7	Schlesurg-Holstein and Lubeck (except Nos. 6 and 8)	2,285,000	1,464,000	3,154,000	39,000	32,000	9,259,000
8	Elbe River ports	359,000	3,782,000	6,472,000	178,000	183,000	11,333,000
9	Weser River ports	292,000	2,871,000	3,057,000	197,000	50,000	6,759,000
10	Ems River ports	22,000	213,000	686,000	6,000	11,000	960,000
11	Hanover, Oldenburg, Brunswick, Schaumburg-Lippe, Schaumburg, Pyrmont (except Nos. 8–10)	10,369,000	9,367,000	14,443,000	430,000	110,000	45,088,000
12	Posen	5,048,000	2,831,000	5,786,000	244,000	397,000	19,354,000
13	Oppeln district	12,251,000	16,375,000	3,586,000	14,451,000	1,352,000	60,266,000
14	Breslau city	113,000	919,000	3,027,000	90,000	88,000	4,350,000
15	Breslau and Liegnitz districts	9,928,000	7,552,000	6,694,000	1,822,000	529,000	36,453,000
16	Berlin	436,000	2,897,000	8,831,000	110,000	350,000	13,060,000
16a	Berlin suburbs	242,000	1,278,000	3,917,000	20,000	28,000	5,727,000
17	Brandenburg	6,040,000	9,923,000	7,896,000	76,000	120,000	30,095,000
18	Magdeburg district and Duchy of Anhalt	8,709,000	6,000,000	6,701,000	215,000	54,000	30,388,000
19	Merseburg and Erfurt districts, Thuringia, Schmalkalden circle	12,720,000	11,884,000	8,811,000	301,000	467,000	46,903,000
20	Saxony (except Leipzig)	11,676,000	7,055,000	8,756,000	398,000	4,137,000	43,698,000
20a	Leipzig and vicinity	406,000	927,000	4,563,000	81,000	153,000	6,536,000
21	Hesse-Nassau (except Schaumburg and Schmalkalden), Wetzlar circle, and Upper Hesse	6,529,000	7,570,000	7,257,000	350,000	204,000	28,439,000
22	Ruhr Basin in Westphalia	16,628,000	53,096,000	17,771,000	9,272,000	1,082,000	114,477,000
23	Ruhr Basin in the Rhine Province	8,730,000	25,986,000	17,401,000	5,239,000	1,060,000	67,146,000
24	Westphalia (except No. 22), Lippe, and Waldeck	4,137,000	7,337,000	12,587,000	326,000	308,000	28,832,000
25	Rhine Province east of the Rhine (except Nos. 23, 28, and Wetzlar circle)	2,354,000	7,466,000	8,293,000	465,000	260,000	21,192,000
26	Rhine Province west of the Rhine (except No. 27) and Birkenfeld	10,718,000	12,006,000	14,353,000	2,863,000	2,326,000	52,984,000
27	Saar Basin	5,036,000	7,656,000	7,159,000	1,994,000	688,000	27,569,000
28	Duisburg, Duisburg-Hochfeld, Ruhrort	723,000	8,420,000	25,654,000	258,000	127,000	35,905,000
29	Lorraine	4,885,000	12,459,000	6,015,000	3,868,000	3,567,000	35,679,000
30	Alsace	2,233,000	1,129,000	2,483,000	1,139,000	400,000	9,617,000
31	Bavarian Palatinate (except Ludwigshafen)	1,291,000	2,543,000	3,128,000	323,000	278,000	8,854,000
32	Grand Duchy of Hesse (except Upper Hesse)	1,984,000	3,120,000	2,899,000	72,000	88,000	10,147,000
33	Baden (except Mannheim and Rheinau	3,414,000	2,788,000	4,874,000	783,000	243,000	15,516,000
34	Mannheim, Ludwigshafen, Rheinau	519,000	4,721,000	2,577,000	962,000	119,000	9,417,000
35	Wurttemberg and Hohenzollern	3,949,000	2,085,000	5,451,000	191,000	316,000	15,941,000
36	South Bavaria	5,712,000	2,441,000	4,014,000	275,000	1,183,000	19,337,000
37	North Bavaria	4,928,000	3,287,000	4,771,000	241,000	1,967,000	20,122,000
	Total	172,827,000	260,781,000	260,781,000	48,002,000	23,393,000	*938,611,000

* The total includes the live weight of animals. Local traffic is reckoned twice (dispatched and received).

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Number and Tonnage of Vessels on Inland Waterways in 1912.

Vessels.	Below 50 tons.	50–149 tons.	150–399 tons.	400–599 tons.	600 tons and over.	Total vessels.	Total tonnage.
	Number.	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*	
Without propelling power	4,502	5,661	9,538	2,290	3,045	[a] 25,042	7,133,602
With propelling power	3,173	771	488	27	28	[b] 4,491	261,055
Passenger	1,104	248	33	.....	.....	1,385	38,938
Freight	549	122	273	25	28	997	117,382
Tugs	1,449	374	172	1	.....	1,996	99,480
Chain steamers	12	21	8	.....	.....	[b] 45	3,442
Other [c]	59	6	2	1	.....	68	1,813
Total	7,675	6,432	10,026	2,317	3,073	[d] 29,533	7,394,657

[a] Includes 6 vessels for which carrying capacity is not shown.
[b] Includes 4 chain steamers for which carrying capacity is not shown.
[c] Includes 2 ferry steamers carrying both passengers and freight, 6 rescue vessels, 5 ice breakers, and 55 fishing motor boats.
[d] Includes 10 vessels for which carrying capacity is not shown.

Traffic on Inland Waterways in 1913, by Articles.

Articles.	Domestic traffic.	Foreign traffic.		Total.
		Outward.	Inward.	
Animals:	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*
Horses, mules, asses	1,376	582	.....	1,958
Cattle	22,845	1	.....	22,846
Sheep	8,283	6	.....	8,289
Swine	55,452	2	2	55,456
Poultry and other	88,542	58,110	2,391	149,043
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
Asphalt, rosin, tar, and pitch	229,000	113,000	94,000	436,000
Bones	6,000	3,000	10,000	19,000
Breadstuffs:				
Barley	929,000	2,000	741,000	1,672,000
Bran	131,000	11,000	41,000	183,000
Buckwheat, millet, legumes	63,000	1,000	60,000	124,000
Corn	254,000	28,000	376,000	658,000
Flour-mill products, n. e. s	58,000	8,000	17,000	83,000
Oats	243,000	5,000	512,000	760,000
Rice, rice meal, and bran	104,000	26,000	49,000	179,000
Rye	407,000	6,000	322,000	735,000
Rye flour	359,000	.....	75,000	434,000
Wheat and spelt	919,000	38,000	2,070,000	3,027,000
Wheat flour	633,000	29,000	21,000	683,000
Cement	1,308,000	337,000	28,000	1,673,000
Cement blocks, etc	25,000	2,000	.....	27,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes:				
Acids—				
Nitric and muriatic	6,000	.....	.....	6,000
Sulphuric	57,000	7,000	26,000	90,000
Barks; tanning materials	85,000	67,000	77,000	229,000
Bone black	1,000	1,000	.....	2,000
Chemicals and drugs, n. e. s	328,000	229,000	100,000	657,000
Colors and dyes	76,000	133,000	5,000	214,000
Glauber's salts; bitter salt	43,000	6,000	3,000	52,000
Soda—				
Raw, calcined	81,000	30,000	20,000	131,000
Caustic	15,000	5,000	3,000	23,000
Clay and cement pipes	9,000	2,000	.....	11,000
Clays, earths, sand:				
Clay, loam, etc	515,000	122,000	99,000	736,000
Colored clays, graphite	515,000	15,000	45,000	575,000
Earth, gravel, sand, marl	9,494,000	825,000	81,000	10,400,000
Earths and raw minerals, n. e. s	98,000	53,000	11,000	162,000
Coal, coke, peat:				
Brown coal	43,000	.....	974,000	1,017,000
Brown-coal briquets and coke	770,000	35,000	1,000	806,000
Charcoal, charcoal briquets	1,000	1,000	.....	2,000
Coal	15,679,000	12,084,000	477,000	28,240,000
Coal briquets	84,000	306,000	2,000	392,000
Coke	985,000	253,000	13,000	1,251,000
Peat, peat charcoal	103,000	51,000	16,000	170,000

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TRAFFIC ON INLAND WATERWAYS IN 1913, BY ARTICLES—Continued.

Articles.	Domestic traffic.	Foreign traffic.		Total.
		Outward.	Inward.	
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
Cocoa, coffee, tea	109,000	3,000	45,000	157,000
Containers, empty	60,000	10,000	9,000	79,000
Cotton, raw and waste	56,000	30,000	15,000	101,000
Dyewoods and extracts	11,000	3,000	6,000	20,000
Earthenware and china	33,000	40,000	5,000	78,000
Fertilizers:				
Animal manure	101,000	10,000	34,000	145,000
Chemical fertilizers, n. e. s.	105,000	52,000	11,000	168,000
Nitrate of soda	122,000	81,000	150,000	353,000
Phosphate of lime, superphosphates	381,000	80,000	235,000	696,000
Potash salts	1,149,000	101,000	1,000	1,251,000
Thomas meal	18,000	206,000	52,000	276,000
Fibers, vegetable:				
Flax, hemp, tow	8,000	2,000	15,000	25,000
Jute	70,000	8,000	21,000	99,000
Fish (including shellfish)	93,000	4,000	34,000	131,000
Fruits and nuts:				
Fruits, berries, nuts	86,000	3,000	38,000	127,000
Grapes	1,000	.....	.....	1,000
Glass and glassware	72,000	39,000	18,000	129,000
Hay and straw	42,000	1,000	1,000	44,000
Hides, leather, furs	49,000	22,000	24,000	95,000
Hops	1,000	.....	.....	1,000
Iron and steel:				
Axles, tires, etc	28,000	35,000	.....	63,000
Bars, hoops	158,000	557,000	6,000	721,000
Blooms, billets	95,000	221,000	5,000	321,000
Boilers, tanks	6,000	3,000	1,000	10,000
Machinery	44,000	35,000	16,000	95,000
Manufactures, n. e. s.	79,000	70,000	9,000	158,000
Pig iron	449,000	285,000	77,000	811,000
Rails for railways	48,000	383,000	2,000	433,000
Railroad ties	2,000	40,000	.....	42,000
Scrap	219,000	6,000	126,000	351,000
Sheets and plates	50,000	251,000	7,000	308,000
Tubes and posts	38,000	71,000	3,000	112,000
Wire	66,000	118,000	3,000	187,000
Lime	821,000	5,000	340,000	1,166,000
Malt	38,000	4,000	40,000	82,000
Meats	5,000	23,000	3,000	31,000
Metals, common, and manufactures of	143,000	23,000	64,000	230,000
Oil cake and meal	88,000	37,000	73,000	198,000
Oils:				
Animal oils, fats, tallow	293,000	94,000	146,000	533,000
Coal-tar oils, naphthalene	86,000	64,000	6,000	156,000
Mineral	424,000	40,000	549,000	1,013,000
Ores:				
Copper	3,000	5,000	2,000	10,000
Iron (except pyrites)	2,582,000	53,000	8,750,000	11,385,000
Iron pyrites	799,000	69,000	661,000	1,529,000
Lead, cobalt, nickel	18,000	2,000	83,000	103,000
Manganese	236,000	15,000	306,000	557,000
Slag for smelting	70,000	5,000	239,000	314,000
Zinc	119,000	12,000	115,000	246,000
Other	4,000	3,000	57,000	64,000
Paper and pasteboard	386,000	106,000	31,000	523,000
Paper stock: Rags	12,000	23,000	4,000	39,000
Plants	1,000	.....	1,000	2,000
Roofing felt, pasteboard, etc	14,000	1,000	.....	15,000
Salt	345,000	163,000	2,000	510,000
Seeds:				
Linseed, oil seeds	170,000	105,000	503,000	778,000
Other	14,000	4,000	6,000	24,000
Spirits, wines, malt liquors:				
Beer	99,000	12,000	15,000	126,000
Spirits, vinegar	34,000	1,000	2,000	37,000
Wine	61,000	26,000	20,000	107,000
Starch, starch sugar	106,000	3,000	52,000	161,000
Stone, and manufactures of:				
Bricks and tiles	3,234,000	109,000	20,000	3,363,000
Building and quarry stone	727,000	340,000	35,000	1,102,000
Paving stones	766,000	182,000	156,000	1,104,000
Slate	11,000	4,000	.....	15,000
Stone, n. e. s.	27,000	3,000	3,000	33,000
Whetstones, etc	177,000	131,000	35,000	343,000

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TRAFFIC ON INLAND WATERWAYS IN 1913, BY ARTICLES—Continued.

Articles.	Domestic traffic.	Foreign traffic.		Total.
		Outward.	Inward.	
Sugar:	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metrid tons.*
Raw	882,000	.....	153,000	1,035,000
Refined	816,000	8,000	386,000	1,210,000
Sirup and molasses	27,000	.....	3,000	30,000
Tobacco, unmanufactured	24,000	7,000	22,000	53,000
Vegetables:				
Beets, sugar, and fodder	462,000	18,000	5,000	485,000
Kitchen herbs	55,000	4,000	4,000	63,000
Potatoes	105,000	33,000	27,000	165,000
Waste of horns, hoofs, etc	2,000	1,000	1,000	4,000
Wood, and manufactures of:				
European timber—				
Rough, hard	46,000	14,000	92,000	152,000
Rough, soft	1,040,000	43,000	608,000	1,691,000
Hewn longitudinally, hard	12,000	2,000	39,000	53,000
Hewn longitudinally, soft	171,000	2,000	112,000	285,000
Sawn longitudinally, hard	53,000	4,000	27,000	84,000
Sawn longitudinally, soft	784,000	13,000	356,000	1,153,000
Firewood	184,000	13,000	4,000	201,000
Furniture, woodenware	42,000	13,000	22,000	77,000
Mine timber	159,000	.....	88,000	247,000
Non-European woods (cedar, erica, mahogany, teak, pitch pine, and other)	34,000 108,000	6,000 16,000	31,000 261,000	71,000 385,000
Osier	23,000	.....	2,000	25,000
Pulp wood	206,000	.....	965,000	1,171,000
Railroad ties	56,000	9,000	36,000	101,000
Telegraph poles	11,000	8,000	39,000	58,000
Wood pulp, straw pulp	120,000	32,000	56,000	208,000
Wool	28,000	5,000	17,000	50,000
Yarn and twist	25,000	12,000	8,000	45,000
Zinc, raw and scrap	94,000	16,000	12,000	122,000
Other	570,000	144,000	158,000	872,000
Total	a56,674,000	a19,718,000	a23,233,000	a99,625,000

a The live weight of animals has been calculated as follows: 1 horse, etc.=450 kilos; 1 head of cattle=500 kilos; 1 sheep=40 kilos; 1 swine=90 kilos; 1 head of poultry, etc.=4 kilos.

TRAFFIC ON INLAND WATERWAYS IN 1913, BY DISTRICTS.

Districts.	Domestic traffic.			Foreign traffic.		Total (except transit).
	Local.	With other districts.		Outward.	Inward.	
		Dispatched.	Received.			
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
Eastern waterways	1,560,000	420,000	541,000	152,000	820,000	5,053,000
Basin of the Oder	1,093,000	7,549,000	4,988,000	31,000	125,000	14,879,000
Brandenburg waterways	768,000	4,572,000	9,297,000	.....	318,000	15,723,000
Basin of the Elbe	1,081,000	11,537,000	9,340,000	785,000	1,693,000	25,517,000
Basins of the Weser, the Ems, the Jade	501,000	4,699,000	4,665,000	126,000	155,000	10,647,000
Basin of the Rhine	2,028,000	20,732,000	20,694,000	18,461,000	19,978,000	83,921,000
Basin of the Danube	109,000	25,000	9,000	163,000	144,000	559,000
Total	7,140,000	49,534,000	49,534,000	19,718,000	23,233,000	a156,299,000

a Local traffic is reckoned twice (dispatched and received).

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GERMAN SHIPPING: NUMBER, TONNAGE, AND CREWS OF SEAGOING SHIPS,[a] 1871–1914.

Kinds of vessels and years (Jan. 1).	Number of vessels.	Tonnage.		Crews.
		Gross.[b]	Net.[c]	
Sailing vessels:[d]				
1871	4,372	.....	900,361	34,739
1876	4,426	.....	901,313	33,215
1881	4,246	.....	965,767	31,003
1886	3,438	.....	854,947	24,839
1891	2,675	.....	693,415	17,898
1896	2,388	618,417	591,036	14,487
1901	2,270	568,190	525,140	12,922
1906	2,299	517,343	471,836	12,809
1910	2,377	453,411	404,576	12,962
1911	2,371	452,996	403,241	12,928
1912	2,401	463,195	411,749	13,154
1913	2,420	447,870	396,904	12,980
1914	2,408	433,370	382,818	12,552
Lighters:[d e]				
1886	33	.....	6,897	86
1891	82	.....	16,346	234
1896	136	31,761	31,069	371
1901	223	72,320	68,630	773
1906	259	86,701	81,981	925
1910	331	111,540	105,174	1,133
1911	331	110,436	103,596	1,121
1912	322	104,481	98,310	1,006
1913	332	107,691	101,324	1,053
1914	357	111,377	104,941	1,122
Steamers:				
1871	147	.....	81,994	4,736
1876	319	.....	183,569	9,147
1881	414	.....	215,758	8,657
1886	664	.....	420,605	14,006
1891	896	.....	723,652	22,317
1896	1,068	1,319,060	879,939	25,139
1901	1,390	2,185,890	1,347,875	36,861
1906	1,762	3,121,412	1,915,475	50,303
1910	1,950	3,865,276	2,349,557	59,421
1911	1,973	3,949,759	2,396,733	59,944
1912	2,009	4,144,322	2,513,666	60,970
1913	2,098	4,380,348	2,655,496	63,713
1914	2,170	4,694,190	2,832,312	70,224
Total:[f]				
1871	4,519	.....	982,355	39,475
1876	4,745	.....	1,084,882	42,362
1881	4,660	.....	1,181,525	39,660
1886	4,135	.....	1,282,449	38,931
1891	3,653	.....	1,433,413	40,449
1896	3,592	1,969,238	1,502,044	39,997
1901	3,883	2,826,400	1,941,645	50,556
1906	4,320	3,725,456	2,469,292	64,037
1910	4,658	4,430,227	2,859,307	73,516
1911	4,675	4,513,191	2,903,570	73,993
1912	4,732	4,711,998	3,023,725	75,130
1913	4,850	4,935,909	3,153,724	77,746
1914	4,935	5,238,937	3,320,071	83,898

[a] The figures include only vessels with a gross tonnage exceeding 50 cubic meters (17.65 registered tons).
[b] Not shown for years prior to 1896.
[c] On July 1, 1895, a new system of vessel measurement went into effect reducing somewhat the amount of net tonnage, particularly for steamships.
[d] Prior to 1883, lighters were included with sailing vessels.
[e] Few of the lighters are seagoing, most of them being dependent on tugs.
[f] The total for 1914 does not include 12 vessels of the German protectorates in the Pacific (11 sailing vessels of 755 tons gross and 536 tons net, with crews of 138 men, and 1 steamer of 96 tons gross and 65 tons net, with a crew of 29).

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GERMAN SHIPPING: NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED AT GERMAN PORTS,[a] 1873–1913.

Countries of origin or destination and years.	Entered.				Cleared.			
	All ships.		With cargoes only.		All ships.		With cargoes only.	
	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.
Coastwise traffic (Germany):								
1873	22,384	1,017,564	16,059	659,102	21,653	938,297	15,921	660,649
1883	32,960	1,560,523	26,072	1,165,238	32,832	1,565,637	25,028	1,176,714
1893	41,746	3,162,988	34,240	2,634,569	42,305	3,193,745	34,208	2,646,965
1903	54,056	4,697,534	46,481	3,851,188	54,526	4,629,244	46,142	3,800,924
1912	65,901	7,051,409	57,315	5,478,158	65,079	7,065,821	55,319	5,608,640
1913	67,726	7,669,529	58,743	5,905,047	68,258	7,786,960	57,985	6,083,691
Over-sea traffic (foreign trade):								
Europe (other than Germany)—								
1873	23,843	4,042,228	21,622	3,762,357	23,615	4,168,592	13,922	2,661,902
1883	21,992	5,893,073	17,891	5,282,790	22,549	6,333,646	16,533	4,219,856
1893	22,728	7,860,317	20,803	7,350,069	23,185	8,527,200	14,036	4,625,069
1903	34,515	10,491,142	31,786	9,707,238	35,248	11,642,299	19,791	6,052,488
1912	45,365	16,074,288	41,460	14,873,324	46,629	18,144,179	26,235	9,404,705
1913	45,114	17,210,692	40,690	16,008,634	46,837	19,122,781	27,959	10,050,105
German protectorates—								
1893	16	25,743	16	25,743	17	25,797	17	25,797
1903	55	135,967	55	135,967	68	169,095	67	168,941
1912	68	220,020	68	220,020	70	216,355	70	216,355
1913	58	187,242	58	187,242	72	232,827	72	232,827
America—								
1873	1,511	1,037,284	1,508	1,036,227	1,246	917,906	1,055	803,907
1883	1,747	1,653,841	1,747	1,653,841	1,370	1,402,161	1,324	1,369,872
1893	1,699	2,759,292	1,699	2,759,292	1,340	2,385,356	1,185	2,112,047
1903	1,551	4,152,567	1,549	4,150,919	1,082	3,233,487	980	3,026,063
1912	1,818	6,145,634	1,818	6,145,634	1,351	5,001,763	1,233	4,700,039
1913	1,827	6,589,698	1,821	6,567,822	1,362	5,449,159	1,259	5,166,875
Africa—								
1873	59	16,736	59	16,736	67	17,002	62	16,093
1883	101	70,528	98	68,819	120	80,669	119	80,585
1893	135	161,112	135	161,112	164	201,963	164	201,963
1903	221	294,379	221	294,379	269	459,231	267	455,078
1912	555	1,067,354	554	1,063,505	403	915,126	398	910,661
1913	580	1,163,747	580	1,163,747	410	938,263	410	938,263
Asia—								
1873	180	109,377	180	109,377	71	41,127	56	29,930
1883	174	188,663	174	188,663	56	53,091	53	50,031
1893	291	566,839	291	566,839	165	317,925	162	314,173
1903	370	919,171	370	919,171	239	619,673	227	589,334
1912	576	1,578,237	576	1,578,237	292	914,506	280	893,818
1913	521	1,490,261	521	1,490,261	340	1,060,576	326	1,029,112
Oceania—								
1873	27	17,404	27	17,404	31	18,058	24	12,931
1883	25	20,190	25	20,190	40	36,526	38	35,209
1893	40	85,343	40	85,343	43	82,667	43	82,667
1903	61	195,288	61	195,288	78	225,486	78	225,486
1912	124	404,516	124	404,516	107	348,903	100	332,414
1913	140	461,008	140	461,008	96	331,240	96	331,240
Total over-sea traffic:								
1873	25,620	5,223,029	23,396	4,942,101	25,030	5,162,685	15,119	3,524,763
1883	24,039	7,826,295	19,935	7,214,303	24,135	7,906,093	18,067	5,755,553
1893	24,909	11,458,646	22,984	10,948,398	24,914	11,540,908	15,607	7,361,716
1903	36,773	16,188,514	34,042	15,402,962	36,984	16,349,271	21,410	10,517,390
1912	48,506	25,490,049	44,600	24,285,236	48,852	25,540,832	28,316	16,457,992
1913	48,240	27,102,648	43,810	25,878,714	49,117	27,134,846	30,122	17,748,422

[a] Each voyage is credited to the country where it began or ended. Vessels calling at several ports during the same voyage are counted only once.

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 76

INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN FOOTWEAR OTHER THAN RUBBER

IMPORT STATISTICS OF BOOTS AND SHOES FOR COUNTRIES WHOSE IMPORTS EXCEEDED $300,000 IN VALUE AND EXPORT STATISTICS OF COUNTRIES WHOSE EXPORTS EXCEEDED $3,000,000 IN VALUE

1908 and 1913

BY

EDWARD WHITNEY

PRICE, 15 CENTS
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Washington, D. C.

WASHINGTON
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1919

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, January 8, 1919.

SIR: Herewith are submitted tables showing the import and export trade of specified countries in boots and shoes other than those of rubber, compiled from the official trade reports of those countries by Edward Whitney, of the Research Division of the Bureau. These tables cover the trade of the important countries of the world in boots and shoes and show transactions in normal years before the war, viz, 1908 and 1913.

Export statistics have been compiled for those countries whose exports were about equal to or exceeded $3,000,000 in value in either of the years indicated, and import statistics for those countries whose imports equalled or exceeded $300,000 in value. It would be of interest, if the necessary material were available, to consider in connection with imports and exports the matter of production, particularly in the exporting countries. But, as is well known, scarcely any country besides the United States has taken a complete census of manufactures in any recent year; in fact, it may be said with almost exact truth that no other country has ever taken a complete census of manufactures. It is doubtful whether figures have hitherto been published for any commodity which give such opportunity to make comparison of intercountry statistics, although it is somewhat problematical whether a study of the subject along this line will result in any very substantial profit or lead to any very satisfactory conclusion. To select one or two instances from the tables presented, representing by no means aggravated cases: The table of exports of boots and shoes from the United Kingdom shows $312,395 worth of footwear exported to Austria-Hungary in 1913, while the table of imports into the latter country from the United Kingdom shows in the same year corresponding imports to the extent of $741,456; again, the United Kingdom shows exports of boots and shoes to Argentina in 1913 to the extent of 66,209 dozen pairs, value $790,845, while the Argentine table of imports shows as corresponding imports from the United Kingdom 54,535 dozen pairs, value $392,191. Undoubtedly differences in methods of computing import and export values in the various countries account in a great measure for these discrepancies. Valuation methods are briefly treated in a special explanatory paragraph in connection with each country. The difference of time required for the passage of goods from one country to another and the existence of free ports or ports of distribution in foreign countries constitute also, among others, reasons for differences along the line just referred to.

Another matter which seems difficult of explanation arises in connection with the tables showing percentages. Take, for instance, the table with respect to exports from the United States. One might

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naturally expect to find a percentage of increase or decrease in quantity from 1908 to 1913 corresponding with a fair degree of exactness to the increase or decrease in value. But exports from the United States to Argentina increased 440.36 per cent in quantity and 590.51 per cent in value. This might be thought to indicate a general rise in the price of shoes between 1908 and 1913; but the exports to Colombia, a sister South American Republic, show a decrease of 43.97 per cent in quantity and 45.35 per cent in value in the same period, and those to Cuba show an increase of 92.47 per cent in quantity and 56.92 in value. Further, one might reason that the people of Argentina suddenly, between 1908 and 1913, developed a tendency to buy from the United States footwear of a high-grade make, pattern, or brand, and make the cheaper grades at home. But, it is unreasonable to adopt this theory with respect to all the countries which exhibit a similar excess in increase of price over that of quantity. Inasmuch as it seems that the export price of goods exported from this country in any given year should present a fair degree of uniformity, being based on the market prices at the ports whence exportations are made, the Bureau confesses its inability to account for the anomalies above mentioned on the ground of a general change in price of goods, a general and sudden revolution in the taste or financial ability of the importers, or on any other basis which appears to offer a substantial footing. However, it is thought that these tables present perhaps the most comprehensive array of statistics bearing the stamp of official authority that have ever been compiled and published regarding international trade in footwear, and they are set before the public in this pamphlet with full confidence that they will prove of interest and value to the boot and shoe trade.

It may be added that in this publication, as far as possible, figures of special trade have been employed for the countries considered instead of those of general trade. Figures for all the exporting countries shown represent this special trade (or relate to goods of domestic production or manufacture) and those for nearly all the importing countries relate to special imports or imports for consumption. All statistics relate to calendar years unless otherwise indicated. In the preparation of this pamphlet, the purpose has been not to consider footwear manufactured from rubber, and the terms "footwear" or "boots and shoes," wherever used, are understood to be exclusive of rubber goods, except in case of perhaps a country or two whose schedule is such that those goods must be included perforce. Absence of figures in either 1908 or 1913 does not necessarily imply that there were no transactions. Transactions of small importance may have been included under "All other countries."

Respectfully,

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN FOOTWEAR.

IMPORTS OF BOOTS AND SHOES INTO SPECIFIED COUNTRIES.

ARGENTINA.

Argentina shows two classes of boots and shoes in its official reports of imports, comprising footwear of leather in general and that of other material except rubber. Its combined imports under these heads amounted to 24,261 dozen pairs, value $230,967, in 1908, and 123,620 dozen pairs, value $1,129,921, in 1913, an advance of 409.5 per cent in quantity and 389.2 per cent in value. In imports of the first class the United States was the leader in 1913, having in the interval between that year and 1908 wrested that position from the United Kingdom. Figures for the United States are: 1908, 1,946 dozen, value $38,176; 1913, 27,292 dozen, value $418,614, a gain of 1,302.5 per cent in quantity and 996.5 per cent in value. The share of the United Kingdom rose from 5,709 dozen, value $77,225, in 1908 to 37,251 dozen, value $326,101, in 1913, a gain of 552.5 per cent in quantity and 322.3 per cent in value. In Argentina's imports of footwear of the first class Switzerland, Germany, France, Italy, and the Netherlands participated to a moderate extent. In the period under consideration Switzerland increased her share from 2,794 dozen, value $27,050, in 1908, to 8,973 dozen, value $86,917, in 1913, a gain of 221.2 per cent in quantity and 221.3 in value; Germany, from 974 dozen, value $15,110, in 1908, to 4,197 dozen, value $58,271, in 1913, a gain of 330.9 per cent in quantity and 285.6 per cent in value; France, from 1,401 dozen, value $8,894, in 1908 to 2,664 dozen, value $27,833, in 1913, a gain of 90.5 per cent in quantity and 212.9 in value; Italy, from 38 dozen, value $492, to 3,147 dozen, value $17,975, a gain of 8,181.6 per cent in quantity and 3,553.4 per cent in value; the Netherlands, from 1 dozen, value $24, to 1,087 dozen, value $12,141. Under the head of other footwear except that of rubber, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, the United States, France, and Germany shared principally in Argentina's import trade. Between 1908 and 1913 the share of the United Kingdom grew from 4,893 dozen, value $18,439, to 17,284 dozen, value $66,090, a gain of 2,532 per cent in quantity and 253.2 per cent in value; Switzerland, from 1,626 dozen, value $9,261, to 5,741 dozen, value $35,804, a gain of 253.1 per cent in quantity and 286.6 in value; the United States, from 350 dozen, value $2,442, to 1,842 dozen, value $26,414, a gain of 426.3 per cent in quantity and 981.7 in value; France, from 1,810 dozen, value $8,250, to 6,640 dozen, value $25,351, a gain of 266.9 per cent in quantity and 207.3 in value; Germany, from 960 dozen, value $3,525, to 4,522 dozen, value $15,994, a gain of 371 per cent in quantity and 353.7 in value. The term "dozen" in Argentine statistics as regards boots and shoes is understood to mean dozen pairs.

For the statistics in this publication the valuation of imported merchandise in Argentina is arbitrary. Goods are valued according to official rates prescribed in a valuation tariff (tarifa de avalúos). The latest valuation tariff was adopted in 1906; it has since undergone some minor alterations. As the official valuations are the same for all countries and remain unchanged for a number of years, it is evident that the Argentine import values, shown in the commercial section of the Anuario de la Dirección General de Estadística, do not reflect the general movement in the price level. Thus, for example, British coal shipped to Argentina during the years 1914–1916 was valued, f. o. b. British port, at $4.21 per long ton in 1914, $4.78 in 1915, and $6.05 in 1916, while in the Argentine statistics the valuation remained unchanged at 7 pesos gold per metric ton, or $6.86 per long ton.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO ARGENTINA.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Dozen pairs.	Value.	Dozen pairs.	Value.
Footwear of leather in general:				
Austria-Hungary	1,101	$14,242	39	$678
Belgium	105	608	79	1,668
Brazil	.....	.....	21	902
Chile	2	48	10	179
France	1,401	8,894	2,664	27,833
Germany	974	15,110	4,197	58,271
Italy	38	492	3,147	17,975
Netherlands	1	24	1,087	12,141
Spain	231	4,584	791	5,223
Switzerland	2,794	27,050	8,973	86,917
United Kingdom	5,709	77,225	37,251	326,101
Uruguay	.....	.....	1	24
United States	1,946	38,176	27,292	418,614
Total	14,302	186,453	85,552	956,526
Other kinds, except that of rubber:				
Austria-Hungary	187	2,120	433	3,316
Belgium	112	359	50	483
China	14	62	.....	.....
France	1,810	8,250	6,640	25,351
Germany	960	3,525	4,522	15,994
Italy	6	50	449	2,145
Japan	.....	.....	698	521
Netherlands	.....	.....	331	2,684
Spain	1	6	78	593
Switzerland	1,626	9,261	5,741	35,804
United Kingdom	4,893	18,439	17,284	66,090
United States	350	2,442	1,842	20,414
Total	9,959	44,514	38,068	173,395
Grand total	24,261	230,967	123,620	1,129,921

MARKET CONDITIONS.

Following is an abstract from a report on conditions of the footwear trade in Argentina: [1]

The department store system of retailing merchandise has reached a higher state of development in Argentina than in any South American country. American shoes have been sold very extensively in special departments of such stores; in fact, they were first introduced and aggressively pushed in a Buenos Aires department store. There are seven or eight establishments in Buenos Aires which may properly be considered department stores.

Outside the Federal capital women's shoes, except in the cheaper grades, are in the majority of cases not sold in the store itself. It is customary for a customer to telephone the store or to send a messenger requesting that about six pairs of shoes of various styles and sizes be sent to her residence for selection. From the six shoes the customer chooses a certain pair which she prefers over the others. All six shoes are then returned to the store and another assortment of various sizes of this particular model or a slight variation of the same are sent to the customer, who in the privacy of her own home tries on the shoes until she finds a pair which fit her. In some cases as many as four separate collections of six pairs each have to be taken out of stock and sent to the customer's home before a sale can be made.

There are no fixed prices in any but American shoe stores or the large department stores handling American shoes. This is another difficulty which manufacturers of American shoes have to contend with in this market. It is an established custom in Argentina for the buying public to bargain and haggle over each purchase, and unless the store makes a point of establishing a one-price system and really adheres to this, the proprietor can never be sure of a fixed margin of profit in his business.

[1] From "Market for Boots and Shoes in Argentina," by H. G. Brock, as yet unpublished. Later, the complete report will be for sale by Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and by the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

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If 10 dealers were to be asked their opinion as to the chief merits of American shoes t is safe to say 8 would answer "Comfort, style." It is also undoubtedly true that ll 10 would criticize the finish of the majority of American shoes imported into Argenina. The finish is a thing that merits more attention on the part of those manufacurers who are anxious to maintain their sales to this market. So many dealers mphasized this point in the case, not only of one kind of shoes or of one particular nake but all kinds and all makes, and demonstrated the truth of their statements by ctual samples taken at random from stock, that it ceases to be merely a minor point f criticism. A little more care in the final operations, the buffing, the bottoming, olishing, the cutting of loose threads, etc., on a shoe will make a great deal of differnce in the acceptability of that shoe in the Buenos Aires retail shoe store.

The principal market for men's high-grade footwear is in Buenos Aires. In fact, Buenos Aires, to a very great extent, sets the style for all kinds of footwear, not only or Argentina but for the other River Plate countries. In men's lines, conservative tyles in lasts and patterns are the rule. Very few fancy goods are to be seen in the igh-grade shoe trade. The same styles are desired in two grades, the chief differnces being in quality of leather and workmanship.

Buenos Aires is likewise the principal market for women's footwear in the River Plate countries. As in the case of men's shoes, it is only the best grades that find ny considerable sale. The women's shoe trade in Argentina offers more problems han the men's. Style changes are frequent, and local shoe manufacturers are in much better position to attend to the requirements of the market than foreign manufacturers. The war, with its attendant difficulties and delays in transportation and manufacturing, has had the effect of greatly stimulating the domestic production of women's footwear in South America.

The pointed toe effect which is popular in the United States is "impossible" to the eyes of Argentine women. An extremely short vamp and medium broad round toe are characteristic of the shoes desired by the trade in Buenos Aires. The most popular leathers are patent kid, glazed kid, and either brown or gray ooze-calf combinations. Pump patterns are extremely popular in all River Plate countries. The use of straps is very common, and probably 60 per cent of all pumps seen in Argentina are built with strap effects. The principal requirements for the Argentine trade are lightness, flexibility, and smartness of design. A great many of the American-made women's shoes on the market to-day are Goodyear welt. No matter how carefully these shoes are made they appear clumsy and heavy to the native Argentinian, who prefers a turn or McKay-sewed article. Ever since 1910 full Louis-Cuban heels have been more popular than any other.

The market for children's imported footwear in Argentina is not so large as for adult lines. The reasons for this seem to be chiefly the matter of price and difficulties of fit. Children's shoes are worn very extensively in Buenos Aires and all important cities, but the imported article finds it very hard to compete with the product of local factories at the present time. The most popular leathers used in children's footwear in Argentina are black vici kid, gun-metal calf, patent colt, and patent kid. In boys' lines high-cut shoes are preferred to oxfords. In girls' lines both boots and pumps sell well with the largest call for boots.

There was a considerable importation of infants' and babies' footwear until about the beginning of 1917, when advanced factory costs, increased expenses, and difficulties of shipping, combined with a decided improvement in the quality of the local production, considerably affected the trade. No separate classification is made in the official statistics and it is therefore not possible to state the extent of the market. Switzerland and France, before the war, furnished the bulk of the imports. The United States was gradually increasing its sales of infants' and babies' shoes until the circumstances noted above seriously interfered with a continuance of the business. While there will always be a sale for the very highest grade of imported footwear in infants' and babies' lines, it is to be doubted if the volume of imports will ever again reach the 1913 level.

Slippers are used rather extensively in Argentina; in fact, this Republic can be said to be the best market for slippers of all kinds in South America.

England, France, Italy, and the United States have supplied in normal times most of the Argentine requirements in children's and infants' sandals. The use of sandals is much more extensive in Argentina than in any other South American Republic.

Tennis, riding, rowing, football, and golf are all indulged in to a considerable extent by the Argentine public. Probably association football would be termed the national sport. Golf and tennis are played by the foreign colonies, although of late years Argentinians have taken more interest in these sports than ever before. Most retail shoe stores carry lines of tennis shoes and the department stores of Buenos Aires are especially well stocked with all sorts of wearing apparel and footwear for sports.

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Horseback riding is a popular sport among the wealthy residents in Buenos Aires. Riding boots as a rule are custom-made although there is a certain importation of American-made and English-made articles. In Buenos Aires there are a number of excellent custom-shoemaking establishments which cater exclusively to the well-to-do trade, and the quality of riding boots turned out by these establishments leaves very little room for improvement. The chief requirement of the market is for a smart appearing boot, the preference being for Russia calf rather than for gun-metal leather.

Boating has a prominent place in the Argentine sport program. Numerous rowing clubs maintain boat houses on the Tigre River, a few miles outside the city of Buenos Aires, and regattas are held at frequent intervals during the summer season. Tennis shoes or canvas high-cut rubber-soled shoes closely resembling sneakers are used by devotees of this sport.

Golf is rapidly assuming an important place in the esteem of native Argentinians and resident foreign inhabitants of the regions around the River Plate, and there is a considerable importation of golf shoes to meet the demands of the game. England and the United States furnished the bulk of the imports. Local factories have commenced the manufacture of golf shoes and, although the importation of these articles has naturally been restricted of late, it is not believed that the import trade will be greatly affected by local competition after the facilities for importing are improved.

Baseball as a sport has not yet developed sufficiently to make it profitable for many dealers to handle baseball uniforms or shoes as a part of the regular stock of the store.

Tennis has a large following in Argentina, and there has been an increased interest observed in the game during the last year or two. There are many tennis clubs in all sections of the country and the importation of canvas and leather, rubber-soled tennis shoes forms no small item in the total imports of footwear.

An article of footwear which is characteristic of River Plate countries, particularly Argentina, is the so-called "bota de gaucho," or cowboy boot. This type of footwear may be briefly described as a high leather boot built on the lines of a riding boot but usually of cheaper construction and not so stiff. Thousands of persons engaged in cattle raising or in agricultural pursuits wear a high boot every day in the year, since much of their time is spent on horseback. The boots are manufactured entirely within the country, both by machinery and by hand.

Cloth puttees are not an article of general wear in the Argentine country districts, and as a rule it is only the foreigners who use them at all. Leather leggings, however, are used a good deal by overseers, superintendents of farms and plantations, etc., but the owners and all employees who can afford them wear high camp boots or the so-called cowboy boots. Ordinary cattle "punchers" and peons wear alpargatas, a cheap canvas slipper with rope sole, the ankles and lower part of the leg being protected by the wide baggy trousers, known locally as "bomachas." They are tied around the ankle with a tape. The major portion of the leggings used in Argentina are made in the country, some shoe factories maintaining a special department for this class of work.

AUSTRALIA.

In the statistical reports of the Commonwealth of Australia footwear, except goloshes and boots and shoes of rubber, are included under a single general head, and quantities are not given. From 1908 to 1913 the imports increased in value from $931,375 to $2,356,549, a gain of 153 per cent. These imports were shared principally by the United Kingdom, the United States, Austria-Hungary, Switzerland, Japan, and France, with the respective percentages in 1913 of 72.3, 14.2, 5.1, 4.1, 2.6, and 1.3. From 1908 to 1913 the share of the United Kingdom increased from $609,650 to $1,703,037, a gain of 179.3 per cent; that of the United States from $164,852 to $334,153, a gain of 102.7 per cent; Switzerland from $14,117 to $95,573, a gain of 577 per cent; Japan from $1,728 to $60,573, a gain of 3,405.4 per cent; France from $9,898 to $29,457, a gain of 197.6 per cent.

The value of goods imported into Australia, as published in the official reports of that country, represents the amount on which duty is payable or would be payable if the duty were ad valorem. The value of goods subject to duty is taken to be the fair market value in the principal markets of the country whence the same were exported, with an addition of 10 per cent to such market value.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO AUSTRALIA.

Classes of footwear and countries of origin.	1908	1913	Classes of footwear and countries of origin.	1908	1913
Boots, shoes, slippers, clogs, pattens, and other footwear of any material, not elsewhere specified:[1]			Boots, shoes, slippers, clogs, patterns, and other footwear of any material, not elsewhere specified—Continued.		
Asia Minor	$5	.....	New Zealand	$399	.....
Australia	307	$569	Norway	88	.....
Austria-Hungary	85,276	120,543	Russia	10	.....
Belgium	15	438	South Africa	63	.....
Canada	1,835	409	Spain	1,251	$560
Ceylon	24	.....	Straits Settlements	161	248
China	5,314	5,197	Sweden	209	579
Denmark	39	.....	Switzerland	14,117	95,573
France	9,898	29,457	Turkey	5	.....
Germany	37,428	.....	United Kingdom	609,650	1,703,037
Hongkong	5	54	United States	164,852	334,153
India	97	.....	Other British possessions	.....	360
Italy	380	.....	Other foreign countries	.....	346
Japan	1,728	60,573			
Java	19	4,453	Total	931,375	2,356,549

[1] The words "not elsewhere specified" refer to other classes in the official report, viz: "Goloshes and rubber soled boots and shoes, and plimsolls," "Gum and wading boots," "Slipper forms and piece goods suitable for boots, shoes, and slippers," "Uppers and tops, cork, leather, and other socks or soles," and "Minor articles" for all classes mentioned.

MARKET CONDITIONS.

The following abstract shows the general conditions in the footwear trade of this Commonwealth:[1]

Importations of footwear into Australia include nearly all kinds of standard leather boots and shoes, rubber boots and shoes, and specialties such as tennis bals and oxfords and the like, but the principal importations are of medium and fine grades for men, women, and children. Cheap footwear, however, showing American style and good value, is in demand for both sexes and for children.

The high-customs tariff decreases the amount, but does not prohibit the importation of footwear. The purchasing power of the people permits them to pay high prices, and they do so quite willingly when offered merchandise which suits their taste and requirements. The general duty on footwear is from 25 to 35 per cent ad valorem and applies to goods from all countries not included in the British Empire; footwear from the latter countries is admitted under a preferential tariff, which is usually about 5 per cent less than the general tariff.

American footwear, except for a brief period when the Australians resented our neutrality, has always been popular. In normal times American-made footwear costs the consumer, on an average, about 75 cents more per pair than the colonial-made article, but is so superior that many persons are willing to pay the difference. American shoes are sold in most of the better class stores, but they are not stocked and featured to command the largest possible volume of business. This is partly the fault of the manufacturers' selling representatives, who seem quite satisfied to take an order for a few pairs and thereby add another line to the many already in the store.

Sales of American footwear have increased during the last everal years, and with a little more sales effort will continue to increase if the tariff remains as it is now and other conditions, including prices, revert to somewhere near the normal level which existed before the war. At the present time (April, 1917) dealers who handle the medium grades of American footwear are convinced that the present high prices are going to make it impossible for them to import. This is not true of the highest grades of women's shoes. Owing to the preference for imported footwear, American manufacturers need not compete too closely in price with the Australian manufacturers. The American shoe is a distinct piece of merchandise and is usually handled as such.

In men's shoes the sizes range from 5 to 10 and the widths usually carried are C, D, E, and EE. Half sizes have not been generally carried, but the trade is now demanding better fit and half sizes are becoming more common. Some stores even claim to carry quarter sizes, which, of course, do not exist. Three-fifths or more of

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in Australia," by C. E. Bosworth; Special Agents Series, No. 159, for sale by Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and by the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 5 cents.

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the trade is in boots (high shoes), but with the younger men shoes (oxfords) are gaining in popularity, especially in the north and the capital cities.

The leathers most in favor are patent, boarded and smooth, bright-finished calf or sides, and glazed kid. Colored leathers are used a little, but only in the medium light tan, smooth and boarded. Work shoes are made from heavy chrome sides, chrome and vegetable splits, and are usually hobnailed or slugged. Men's shoes in Australia need not be as heavy in construction as the typical British shoe, but they must give a reasonable amount of service. The chief complaint against men's shoes from America is that they do not wear long enough without resoling.

Extreme high toes are not wanted, but medium high, full round toes are very much in favor. Too much swing to the last is not a good feature for the Australian trade. The same lasts that find favor with the young men in America will usually prove popular with the young men in Australia. The older men do not change readily from a style and make which they find suits them in fit and service. Medium high heels with generous treads are most satisfactory for the Australian trade.

The bottoms should be carefully finished on both men's and women's footwear. Care should be taken to show on the sole or shank, preferably on the sole, a distinctly American trade-mark or trade name. Velvet bottoms with neat wheeling, or other finishes showing individuality and care, command attention and win approval. In the Australian market the bottom finish and the trade-mark showing are quite as important as the upper finish.

In women's shoes the sizes range from 2 to 7, with the largest demand centered on sizes 4.to 6 Widths range from C to EE. For the general trade, vamps of medium length showing medium round, full toes with only medium swing to the last are most suitable, but nearly any shape which is genuinely new in America will meet with Australian approval. In the higher grades long foreparts and rather square toes on lasts with little or now swing, carrying heels not less than 16/8 high, are most desired. In fact, heels less than 16/8 high are not at all popular.

In the capital cities and the north, turn pumps, turn single and double strap pumps, and two or four eyelet oxfords in welts or McKays enjoy a good demand, and because of their fit American low cuts are especially popular, though perhaps the retail dealer should be encouraged to carry more widths to assure a good fit in these particular styles. (In the Australian trade pumps are usually referred to as "court shoes" and strap pumps as "bar shoes." "Pumps" in Australia means turn shoes of any height.) In the heavier footwear, that is oxfords and boots, it makes little difference whether the shoes are welts or McKays. Patent and kid leathers are most popular with the women's trade. Colored leathers are enjoying a certain popularity and are used in combination with cloth for both harmony and contrast. Shoes made of contrasting leathers are also in favor with the city trade. Satin slippers are popular for evening wear and ornaments such as bows, buckles, and jewels which may be readily attached or detached enjoy a good sale. In the provincial districts, or "back blocks," velvet pumps and boots are still worn and sell freely.

In summer white buck and white canvas enjoy a good sale, and all through the year boots showing the "millinery effects" are purchased at high prices by the lovers of smart dress.

The Australian market for children's footwear is simply a duplicate of the American market, with the greatest demand for cheap and medium grades, although the better stores in the capital cities find a ready sale for the more expensive lines. Children's sizes are grouped 4–6, 7–10, 11–2, all on wide lasts, mostly EE and F.

Both black and tan leathers in welt pumps and oxfords are favorites. The colonial, English, and Swiss manufacturers enjoy most of this trade now, but the styles and workmanship of American-made children's footwear would quickly win a market. The uppers should be of such quality that they can be resoled once, and if it is possible to resole them twice, so much the better for their popularity and permanence in the market.

There is no great sale for sport shoes, because the rubber-soled bals and oxfords serve the purpose very well. These are now supplemented by white buck oxfords and high cuts with red rubber soles. These shoes are, however, very heavy. The Australians indulge freely in outdoor sports, and it is almost certain that American shoes for golf, bowling, tennis, football, cricket, and the snappy styles of outing footwear such as is produced in Long Island City, Brooklyn, and by manufacturers in other centers would enjoy a good sale.

Moccasins from America are now enjoying a good sale and are generally popular; that is, the type properly known as Indian slippers. No doubt other types would sell equally well if introduced. Moccasins have taken hold of the market so strongly that one or two Australian firms have undertaken their manufacture, but their production does not seem to lessen the demand for the imported article as made "by the American Indians."

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Flexible McKay comfort shoes and turn comfort shoes have been largely supplied rom England, and this class of footwear is well known to the trade. The American rticle of this class is not a factor in the trade. It is quite possible, however, that \merican manufacturers of these specialties could enter the Australian market now, or importations from England are discontinued because of the inability of the English nanufacturers to make deliveries. Stocks of these shoes are very low.

The average Australian shoe store is pretty much a jumble in arrangement and stock. There are a few stores, catering to the better trade, that are up to date in window displays and very fair in their interior appointments. Some of the department stores have shoe departments that are as good as will be found anywhere. Retailers usually figure their profits at 50 per cent or more.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Boots and shoes of all kinds, excepting those of rubber, imported into Austria-Hungary, according to the official reports of that country, amounted to 456,131 pounds, value $664,305, in 1908, and to 3,194,025 pounds, value $5,101,613, in 1913, a gain of 600.2 per cent in weight and 667.8 in value. Germany was predominant in this trade, furnishing 57 per cent of the total imports by weight and 55.9 per cent by value in 1908, and 72.5 per cent by weight and 72.3 per cent by value in 1913. These imports are divided into four classes, but only two of them are of marked importance, viz, boots and shoes weighing more than 1.3227 pounds and up to 2.645 pounds per pair and those weighing 1.3227 pounds or less per pair. Figures for leading countries in the first class were: Germany, 140,653 pounds, value $198,156, in 1908, and 1,191,807 pounds, value $1,865,612, in 1913, a gain of 747.3 per cent in weight, 841.5 per cent in value; the United Kingdom, 19,841 pounds, value $27,953, in 1908, and 229,499 pounds, value $359,249, in 1913, a gain of 1,056.7 per cent in weight and 1,185.2 per cent in value; Switzerland, 3,086 pounds, value $4,348, in 1908, and 22,487 pounds, value $35,200, in 1913, a gain of 628.7 per cent in weight and 709.6 per cent in value; the United States, 63,493 pounds, value $89,450, in 1908, and 140,653 pounds, value $220,174, in 1913, a gain of 121.5 per cent in weight and 146.1 per cent in value; Belgium had no share in these Austrian imports in 1908, but appeared in 1913 with 11,464 pounds, value $17,945. The same countries appear as leaders in Austria's imports of boots and shoes weighing 1.3227 pounds or less per pair. Comparative figures are as follows: Germany, 81,129 pounds, value $122,514, in 1908, and 911,161 pounds, value $1,510,198 in 1913, a gain of 1,023.1 per cent in weight and 1,132.7 per cent in value; the United Kingdom, 13,228 pounds, value $19,975, in 1908, and 209,437 pounds, value $347,130, in 1913, a gain of 1,483.3 per cent in weight and 1,637.8 per cent in value; Switzerland, 6,173 pounds, value $9,322, in 1908, and 85,098 pounds, value $141,044, in 1913, a gain of 1,278.6 per cent in weight and 1,413 per cent in value. Belgium again did not participate in this class in 1908, but its share in 1913 was 15,212 pounds, value $25,213. Boots and shoes weighing in excess of 2.645 pounds per pair appear as a class of moderate importance, but Germany supplied 34,612 pounds thereof, value $45,576, in 1908, and 204,807 pounds, value $301,738, in 1913, a gain of 491.7 per cent in weight and 562.1 in value. Total imports of this class amounted to 44,973 pounds, value $59,219, in 1908, and 240,081 pounds, value $353,707, in 1913. In this connection it should be mentioned that there is invariably a much greater difference between the figures of the official reports of Austria-Hungary and those of the United States than when similar comparisons are attempted in the case of other countries. This subject is referred to in the letter of submittal on page 5.

For methods of computing values in the foreign-trade statistics of Austria-Hungary, see page 73.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes of all kinds, except of rubber, with or without leather, combined or not with textile materials or with other materials, weighing per pair:				
More than 2.645 pounds—				
Belgium			661	$977
Germany	34,612	$45,576	204,807	301,738
Italy	3,307	4,354	4,850	7,145
Netherlands	221	290		
Russia, European	881	1,161	441	650
Switzerland	881	1,161	3,086	4,547
Turkey—				
European			221	325
Asiatic			221	325
United Kingdom	3,969	5,225	23,810	35,077
United States	661	871	1,984	2,923
Goods returned	441	581		
Total	44,973	59,219	240,081	353,707
More than 1.3227 and up to 2.645 pounds—				
America not specified	221	311		
Belgium			11,464	17,945
Canada			661	1,035
France	2,866	4,038	3,527	5,522
Germany	140,653	198,156	1,191,807	1,865,612
Greece			441	690
Italy	9,921	13,977	3,748	5,867
Netherlands	661	932	221	345
Roumania	221	311	441	690
Russia, European			221	345
Switzerland	3,086	4,348	22,487	35,200
Turkey, European	3,527	4,969	2,205	3,451
United Kingdom	19,841	27,953	229,499	359,249
United States	63,493	89,450	140,653	220,174
Goods returned	441	620	881	1,380
Total	244,931	354,065	1,608,256	2,517,505
1.3227 pounds or less—				
Belgium			15,212	25,213
Canada			441	731
Denmark	221	333		
France	1,984	2,996	5,732	9,500
Germany	81,129	122,514	911,161	1,510,198
Italy	8,598	12,984	4,630	7,673
Netherlands	221	333	441	731
Russia, European	221	333	1,323	2,192
Serbia	1,764	2,663		
Switzerland	6,173	9,322	85,098	141,044
Turkey, European	6,393	9,655	6,173	10,232
United Kingdom	13,228	19,975	209,437	347,130
United States	19,620	29,630	82,010	135,929
Goods returned	19,620	29,630	14,550	24,116
Total	159,172	240,368	1,336,208	2,214,689
Slippers and house shoes without regard to weight—				
Bulgaria	221	333		
Germany	3,527	5,327	6,613	10,963
Greece			221	365
Italy	1,323	1,998	1,323	2,192
Turkey, European	1,984	2,995	1,323	2,192
Total	7,055	10,653	9,480	15,712
Grand total	456,131	664,305	3,194,025	5,101,613

MARKET CONDITIONS.

The following summary indicates conditions bearing on the footwear trade in Austria-Hungary before the war: [1]

Austrian-made shoes are widely known on the world's markets. The Austrian specialty is a fine hand-turned shoe for women, and articles of this character in street.

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in Italy and Austria-Hungary," by Arthur B. Butman, Special Agents Series No. 70. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 10 cents.

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house, and evening lines, which are generally known in foreign markets as Vienna shoes, constitute the bulk of the Austro-Hungarian footwear export trade.

Vienna, Budapest, and Bohemia are the principal centers for the manufacture of fine turned shoes, most of which are in fancy lines made practically entirely by hand. In addition to the hand-turned work considerable quantities of hand-pegged and some hand-welted shoes are made, the chief districts for the manufacture of these goods being Bohemia and the Krain (Carniola). In other localities large quantities of cheap canvas and felt goods are made by hand.

The output of handmade footwear still exceeds the machine-made output, but owing to the wide distribution of the former industry and its peculiar character I have found it impossible to obtain any authoritative estimate of the production. Turned goods unquestionably hold first place in the output of handmade footwear, a good class of pegged work comes second, and welted third. The pegged goods made in Austria-Hungary are, as a rule, quite superior articles, and not to be compared with the usual pegged footwear. However, certain quantities of cheap pegged goods are also turned out.

The requirements of the Austro-Hungarian customer as to styles and sizes differ little from those in the American trade. Weights, however, should be light and widths largely medium and wide; this applies to both men's and women's articles. Glazed kid, box calf, russia calf, and patent leathers are all salable, though probably more glazed kid goods are sold than any other, and the larger proportion in blacks.

Genuine American-made footwear is deservedly popular in all the principal cities, and particularly in Budapest, where the sentiment toward German-made goods is less favorable than in Vienna. Dealers in Budapest state that if American manufacturers would allow the same terms as the German, or even grant 60 or 90 days, American boots and shoes might lead the trade in this part of the country. I was further urged to cite the advantages of Budapest as a distributing center for American leather and boots and shoes for both the Hungarian trade and that of the Balkan States. Freight, duty, and all expenses from the United States to Budapest average 25 cents per pair on women's shoes and 30 cents per pair on men's shoes.

If it were possible to place on this market good-wearing American-made shoes for men at a price corresponding to that at which the English-made "Correct" shoe is sold, orders to the United States would, it is stated, be greatly increased. It is doubtful, however, whether American manufacturers can afford to do this, owing to the higher cost of manufacture in the United States and the steady high prices of leather.

Considering the comparatively high prices at which American footwear is sold, the terms American manufacturers usually offer foreign dealers, and the distance goods must be shipped, it seems that the United States may justly feel gratified with the growth of its trade in Austria-Hungary. The main cause of this growth is the acknowledged superiority of American boots and shoes in fit and finish.

BELGIUM.

Belgium combines all footwear of leather under one general head in its official report of imports. In 1908 that country imported such footwear to the extent of 794,891 pounds, valued at $522,102, and in 1913 1,884,843 pounds, valued at $1,226,146, the gain being 137.1 per cent in weight and 134.8 in value. The trade of 1908 was divided principally between the United Kingdom, France, Germany, the United States, and the Netherlands. During the period from 1908 to 1913 the United Kingdom advanced its share from 283,355 pounds, valued at $217,265, to 1,114,716 pounds, value $728,842, a gain of 293.4 per cent in weight and 235.5 in value; France gained from 237,169 pounds, valued at $133,140, to 331,208 pounds, valued at $190,416, the percentage being 39.7 on weight and 43 on value; Germany's gain was from 169,353 pounds, value $98,556, to 220,302 pounds, valued at $148,448, increase in weight 30.1 per cent and in value 50.6 per cent; the United States' share rose from 42,355 pounds, valued at $36,678, to 58,232 pounds, valued at $53,827, a gain in weight of 37.5 per cent and in value 46.8 per cent. Figures of the Netherlands are 49,337 pounds, valued at $26,655, for 1908 and 138,862 pounds, valued at $84,471, for 1913, the percentage of gain being 181.5 for weight and 216.9 for value. The small share of Switzerland in 1908, 1,523 pounds, valued at $1,864, increased in 1913 to 17,445 pounds with a value of $17,577.

The values of imports and exports as shown in the annual statement of the foreign trade of Belgium are based partly on declarations, partly on estimates. Declared values are shown for goods dutiable ad valorem and some others. For a large majority of the goods official estimates are employed. Formerly a general averate price was calculated for each item shown in the returns. The figures thus showed the total imports and exports with sufficient accuracy, and likewise the exports by countries, but did not permit a comparison of imports by countries. In order to remedy this

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defect, special valuations for each country of origin have been calculated annually, beginning with 1906.

The import valuations include cost, freight, and charges incurred up to the time the goods reach the Belgian frontier but do not include duties or excise taxes.

The official valuations are revised annually by a special commission appointed by the Minister of Finance. The members are officials of the ministry.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO BELGIUM.

Countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Austria-Hungary	10,494	$6,484	1,799	$1,300
France	237,169	133,140	331,208	190,416
Germany	169,353	98,556	220,302	148,448
Hamburg (free port)	68	1		
Italy	646	604	357	399
Netherlands	49,337	26,655	138,862	84,471
Russia	57	104	15	24
Switzerland	1,523	1,864	17,445	17,577
United Kingdom	283,355	217,265	1,114,716	728,842
United States	42,355	36,878	58,232	53,827
Other countries	534	551	1,907	842
Total	794,891	522,102	1,884,843	1,226,146

MARKET CONDITIONS.

Conditions of the boot and shoe trade in Belgium early in 1913 are summarized as follows: [1]

The market for American-made footwear is found principally among the well-to-do classes and also among the upper middle classes in the large towns. The working classes generally buy articles of German and domestic manufacture. The requirements of the Belgian trade, particularly in Brussels, are much the same as in Paris. Styles change rapidly and only up-to-date goods will meet the demands.

In straight leather goods for men and women more blacks than colors are used. The demand for fancies in all leather, leather and cloth, and all cloth is good. Children's lines run more largely to black in winter and colored in summer.

I find that a good market exists in Belgium for children's American-made boots and shoes, a circumstance which seldom obtains in Europe. One prominent retail house informs me that its sales of children's American-made footwear doubled during the past 12 months. It was further stated that the demand for men's and women's shoes is constantly increasing, and that American shoes have won their way in Belgium amid keen competition, owing primarily to their good fit and excellent workmanship.

The conservative American shapes with medium-weight soles are preferred to the exaggerated shapes for both men's and women's shoes. Cuban heels are in the majority though there is a tendency toward the English flat heel for men's; calls for Louis XV heels for women's wear are infrequent. Children's footwear with spring heels is desired on the usual American lines.

German, English, and French made products and the higher class products of the domestic industries all enter into sharp competition with American footwear. German and English goods are made largely on the same lines as the American, but in heavier weights. French shoes are made on both American and French lasts, though French manufacturers are perhaps following more the so-called English shape than the full-swing American style last.

BRAZIL.

In the official reports of Brazil with respect to imports, all boots and shoes of leather are embraced under one general head and quantities are not shown. The imports of this class increased in value from $261,013 in 1908 to $786,626 in 1913, or 201.4 per cent. The United States, Austria-Hungary, the United Kingdom, Germany, and France were the leading participants with respective percentages of 72.5, 15, 5.6, 3.5, and 2.2 in 1913. The share of the United States rose from $129,681 in value

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in Belgium, Spain, and Egypt," by A. B. Butman, Special Agents Series No. 73. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 5 cents.

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n 1908 to $570,532 in 1913, a gain of 340 per cent; that of Austria-Hungary from $69,368 to $118,308, a gain of 70.6 per cent; the United Kingdom from $19,803 to $43,652, a gain of 120.4 per cent; Germany from $6,092 to $27,193, a gain of 346.4 per cent; France decreased from $27,757 to $17,595, a loss of 36.6 per cent.

For Brazil the value of articles imported includes their cost in the country of origin and freight and other charges incurred until the goods are delivered free on board n the Brazilian port of destination. Duties and other subsequent charges are not ncluded.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF LEATHER BOOTS AND SHOES INTO BRAZIL.

Countries whence imported.	1908	1913	Countries whence imported.	1908	1913
Austria-Hungary	$69,368	$118,308	Spain	$582	.....
Belgium	504	.....	Sweden	.....	$82
France	27,757	17,595	Switzerland	2,993	922
Germany	6,092	27,193	Turkey—Asiatic	48	.....
Italy	372	263	United Kingdom	19,803	43,652
Japan	.....	2	Uruguay	.....	3,006
Norway	.....	211	United States	129,681	570,532
Portugal	3,733	4,860			
Russia	80	.....	Total	261,013	786,626

MARKET CONDITIONS.

The following extracts from daily Commerce Reports give conditions in the boot and shoe trade in Brazil:[1]

Owing to the development of a national industry, there is not now such a marked demand in Brazil for footwear of foreign manufacture as was formerly the case. American shoe machinery, however, is very largely employed here on much the same contract terms as in the United States. One shoe dealer here stated that there is a tendency at present to use a sort of pasteboard inner sole and heel in American shoes, and that while this has the advantage of making the shoe light in weight, it is not very serviceable in a city like Rio de Janeiro, where sometimes there are long periods of damp and rainy weather. This same dealer was of the opinion that after the war, for this reason and others (such as constantly increasing prices), the demand for American-made shoes will be more or less restricted. This belief is further strengthened by the fact that the Brazilian manufacturers are becoming better equipped as time goes on adequately to supply the market themselves. It should also be remembered that the practice of having shoes custom-made is followed to a considerable extent among the better dressed, there being a large number of individual bootmakers established here, besides the shoe factories. Women's shoes imported from Europe are said to be the same in both price and quality as American-made shoes. Before the war, however, shoes of French manufacture were preferred to those imported from other countries because of their smart appearance. With regard to the kind of thread used in sewing the uppers and soles, the difference between American and other foreign-made shoes is said to be slight. The leather in the uppers and soles of American shoes is said to be heavier than in those from other countries. The weight and kind of drill in the linings is the same as in shoes imported from Europe. The heels in shoes of European manufacture are invariably of leather. Generally speaking, there are fewer women's than men's shoes imported into Brazil. Although, as above stated, the native industry in shoes is constantly increasing, there is reason to believe that there should be a certain market here, although limited, for American-made shoes.

Brazil offers no very great opportunities for American shoes at present. While some are sold here, the success of the native industry and the almost prohibitive duties levied on imported footwear militate against any large expansion of the trade in American shoes. A fairly good "American-type" shoe is made by a great many Brazilian factories. The shoe, in its general lines, follows American patterns, but the designs are slightly modified (with regard to colored uppers, fanciful stitching, broganning, etc.) by Brazilian experts who are employed for the purpose. It is almost invariably made of American tanned leather, upon an American last, and by

[1] The first paragraph is taken from an article in Commerce Reports for May 26, 1917, by A. L. M. Gottschalk, consul general at Rio de Janeiro; the second is from Commerce Reports for Jan. 15, 1917, by the same official.

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American machinery. Some lasts are made locally of native wood, but these do not appear to be so well seasoned nor so fit for the purpose as the lasts that are imported from the United States. The change of style is constant, and a great number of models must be placed upon the market in order to keep up with the demand. This is particularly true of women's shoes; these, however, are often copied from French models as well as from American. It may be said that as a general rule the best-dressed men and women do not buy ready-made shoes but have their own bootmaker, who charges an average price of 35 to 40 milreis ($8.75 to $10 U. S. currency) a pair. For ready-made shoes the prices range from 22 milreis to 30 milreis ($5.50 to $7.50).

BRITISH INDIA.

British India's imports of boots and shoes, according to the official trade reports of the sea-borne trade of that country (exclusive of Government stores), aggregated 1,873,992 pairs, value $1,234,407, in 1908, and 2,683,091 pairs, value $2,153,660, in 1913, an increase of 43.18 per cent in quantity and 74.47 per cent in value. In 1908 British India showed but one general class of imported boots and shoes, but in 1913 this class was subdivided into boots and shoes of leather and those of other materials. It is presumable that in both years rubber footwear is included and can not be separated, although this is not certain, as the official report has a class which embraces other manufactures of rubber except tires for motor vehicles. The leading countries sharing in the imports of the kind under discussion were the United Kingdom, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Spain, Germany, and the United States. The share of the country first named was 1,075,941 pairs, value $1,022,452, in 1908, and 2,043,185 pairs, value $1,985,678, in 1913, a gain of 89.9 per cent in quantity and 94.21 per cent in value; that of Austria-Hungary was 214,270 pairs, value $81,824, in 1908, and 265,548 pairs, value $77,182, in 1913, a gain of 23.93 per cent in quantity and a loss of 5.67 per cent in value; as explained in the case of other countries, this gain in quantity and loss in value may be accounted for by a general decline in the import price of footwear between 1908 and 1913, or to a change in Austria's takings from expensive styles or makes to those comparatively cheap; the share of Italy was 245,831 pairs, value $46,570, in 1908, and 59,908 pairs, value $8,696, in 1913, a loss of 75.63 per cent in quantity and 81.33 per cent in value; Spain's share was 112,742 pairs, value $21,323, in 1908, and 50,954 pairs, value $7,986, in 1913, a loss of 54.8 per cent in quantity and 62.55 per cent in value; the share of Germany was 49,575 pairs, value $19,913, in 1908, and 67,462 pairs, value $14,555, in 1913, a gain of 36.08 per cent in quantity and a loss of 26.91 in value; the share of the United States amounted to 7,215 pairs, value $16,307, in 1908, and 6,696 pairs, value $17,087, in 1913, a loss of 7.19 per cent in quantity and a gain of 4.78 per cent in value. In 1913 the United Kingdom almost completely monopolized British India's imports of footwear of leather, the share of that country in the total of 1,780,690 pairs, value $1,912,496, for the whole class, being 1,727,079 pairs, value $1,856,730, or almost 97 per cent in quantity and slightly more in value. Again the United Kingdom was far in the lead, in the same year, in the imports of footwear of other materials than leather (which, as already stated, probably includes rubber boots and shoes), its figures in that class being 316,106 pairs, value $128,948, or about 35 per cent of the total imports of the class in quantity and over 53 per cent in value. Austria-Hungary, Sweden, and Germany competed slightly with the United Kingdom in imports of the class last referred to, with respective percentages of about 27, 7, and 7 in quantity and 23, 7, and 5 in value.

The statements of both quantities and values in the Annual Statement of the Sea-Borne Trade of British India are based on the declarations of importers in bills of entry, as subsequently checked by customs officials. The values are based on wholesale market prices and represent (*a*) the wholesale cash price, less trade discount, for which goods of the like kind and quality are sold, or are capable of being sold, at the time and place of importation or exportation, without any deduction whatever, except of the duty payable on imports; or (*b*) where such price is not ascertainable, the cost at which goods of the like kind and quality could be delivered at such place, without any deduction, except of the import duty. All figures relate to fiscal years ending March 31.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO BRITISH INDIA.

Classes and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Boots and shoes:				
Austria-Hungary	214,270	$81,824	.....	.....
Belgium	5,273	1,906	.....	.....
Ceylon	4,135	2,265	.....	.....
France	7,693	2,975	.....	.....
Germany	49,575	19,913	.....	.....
Hongkong	2,550	556	.....	.....
Italy	245,831	46,570	.....	.....
Japan	100,513	5,145	.....	.....
Norway	14,860	5,604	.....	.....
Spain	112,742	21,323	.....	.....
Straits Settlements	31,174	6,878	.....	.....
United Kingdom	1,075,941	1,022,452	.....	.....
United States—				
Atlantic ports	7,175	16,271	.....	.....
Pacific ports	40	36	.....	.....
Other British possessions	1,691	302	.....	.....
Other foreign countries	529	387	.....	.....
Total	1,873,992	1,234,407	.....	.....
Of leather—				
Austria-Hungary	.....	.....	22,994	$22,079
Ceylon	.....	.....	1,895	1,348
Germany	.....	.....	1,370	2,063
Japan	.....	.....	2,694	1,032
Straits Settlements	.....	.....	17,281	12,410
United Kingdom	.....	.....	1,727,079	1,856,730
United States—				
Atlantic ports	.....	.....	6,019	15,875
Pacific ports	.....	.....	4	5
Other British possessions	.....	.....	321	195
Other foreign countries	.....	.....	1,033	759
Total	.....	.....	1,780,690	1,912,496
Of other materials—				
Austria-Hungary	.....	.....	242,554	55,103
France	.....	.....	5,437	1,820
Germany	.....	.....	66,092	12,492
Italy	.....	.....	59,908	8,696
Japan	.....	.....	74,118	3,845
Spain	.....	.....	50,954	7,986
Straits Settlements	.....	.....	8,204	2,424
Sweden	.....	.....	64,878	16,979
United Kingdom	.....	.....	316,106	128,948
United States—Atlantic ports	.....	.....	673	1,207
Other British possessions	.....	.....	5,480	326
Other foreign countries	.....	.....	7,997	1,338
Total	.....	.....	902,401	241,164
Grand total	1,873,992	1,234,407	2,683,091	2,153,660

MARKET CONDITIONS.

No recent report is available in the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce giving conditions in the footwear trade of British India. An article in daily Commerce Reports for June 1, 1916, by Consul S. C. Reat, Rangoon, contained the following, after stating that orders for American footwear totaling about $50,000 had been taken by a Boston manufacturer:

This demand for American footwear will continue under present conditions. Boots and shoes are hardly procurable in England at prices that can be paid here. The increase in cost is from 25 to 35 per cent. One of the largest firms in Rangoon has just been advised by cable that the price for a certain line of boys' boots and shoes has gone up 50 per cent. The increase prevented the confirmation of an advance price.

Rangoon is a good market for men's boots and shoes, because they are worn by a large proportion of the native community. The market for women's footwear is not so good, since the custom of wearing European shoes is not common among them.

The styles of men's boots and shoes are semi-American, with toes not so pointed as those usually worn in the United States. The local market seems to require a rather broad style of toe, the English rather than the American shape.

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BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.[1]

The statistical trade reports of British South Africa (exclusive of Government stores) show imported footwear of leather under four classes—for men, for women, for children, and "slippers, plimsolls, and Chinese footwear." Quantities are not completely shown for 1908. The combined imports under these four classes amounted to $4,485,429 in value in 1908, and to 6,459,549 pairs, value $7,039,023, in 1913, a gain of 56.9 per cent in value. In the list of countries furnishing these imports the United Kingdom was, naturally, far in the lead, that country's figures being as follows: Men's shoes, 1908, pairs not stated, value $2,260,197; 1913, 2,006,615 pairs, value $3,187,888, a gain of 41 per cent in value; women's shoes, 1908, 1,218,439 pairs, value $1,139,744; 1913, 1,552,630 pairs, value $1,649,881, a gain of 27.4 per cent in quantity and 44.8 per cent in value; children's shoes, 1908, 1,069,127 pairs, value $678,045; 1913, 1,288,225 pairs, value $902,599, a gain of 20.5 per cent in quantity and 33.1 per cent in value; slippers, etc., 1908, 164,619 pairs, value $74,934; 1913, 1,274,840 pairs, value $889,956, a gain of 674.4 per cent in quantity and 1,087.7 per cent in value. While many other countries participate in British South Africa's imports of boots and shoes, their shares are are so small as to be almost negligible. In the years under discussion the shares of the United States were larger than those of any country outside of the United Kingdom, its figures being as follows: Men's footwear, 1908, 34,687 pairs, value $91,787; 1913, 45,869 pairs, value $127,580, a gain of 32.2 per cent in quantity and 39 per cent in value; women's shoes, 1908, 24,697 pairs, value $56,271; 1913, 36,445 pairs, value $79,032, a gain of 47.6 per cent in quantity and 40.4 per cent in value; children's shoes, 1908, 3,448 pairs, value $4,102; 1913, 6,987 pairs, value $8,078, a gain of 102.6 per cent in quantity and 96.9 per cent in value; slippers, etc., 1908, 3,674 pairs, value $1,966; 1913, 6,961 pairs, value $8,019, a gain of 89.5 per cent in quantity and 307.9 per cent in value. In women's footwear, Switzerland and Austria-Hungary attained slight prominence, the figures of the former country being 7,109 pairs, value $5,913, in 1908, and 51,663 pairs, value $68,813, in 1913, a gain of 626.7 in quantity and 1,063.8 per cent in value. The figures for Austria-Hungary are 65,307 pairs, value $78,302, in 1908, and 47,080 pairs, value $45,030, in 1913, a loss of 27.9 per cent in quantity and 42.5 per cent in value.

Declared values are shown in the trade reports of the Union of South Africa and British South Africa. Prior to July 7, 1914, the declared value of imported merchandise was its selling value at the place of purchase, plus the cost of packing and packages; from that date the declared value of merchandise is its selling value in the principal markets of the country of purchase, including the cost of packing and packages and the cost of its conveyance to the port of shipment.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Boots and shoes of leather:				
Men's boots and shoes—				
Australia			3	$10
New South Wales	18	$54		
Victoria	6	15		
Austria-Hungary	6,880	10,740	10,091	6,180
Belgium			1,199	1,781
British India	3,059	4,910	170	131
Canada	203	190	6	15
Canary Islands	1	5		
China	5,857	2,690	259	107
France	783	701	3,818	925
Germany	10,277	10,619	22,581	12,093
Greece	21	44		
Hongkong	500	297		
Italy	18	39	130	190
Mauritius	3	5		
Netherlands	1,078	2,312	202	238
New Zealand	1	5		
Norway			56	68
Russia	4	5	1	5
South African produce			1,700	2,925

[1] For 1908 the figures relate to British South Africa as a whole, but for 1913 they relate only to the Union of South Africa and Northern and Southern Rhodesia. In each instance they are exclusive of Government stores.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Boots and shoes of leather—Continued.				
Men's boots and shoes—Continued.				
Spain	637	$404	43	$58
Sweden	8	19	1,934	1,017
Switzerland	1,055	3,188	678	1,072
Turkey	55	150	.....	.....
United Kingdom	.....	2,260,197	2,006,615	3,187,888
United States	34,687	91,787	45,869	127,580
Total	.....	2,388,376	2,105,175	3,342,283
Women's shoes—				
Australia	54	29	19	58
Austria-Hungary	65,307	78,802	47,080	45,030
Belgium	.....	.....	76	146
British India	222	88	95	58
Canada	200	165	.....	.....
China	21	5	.....	.....
France	5,829	3,095	6,766	3,265
Germany	21,445	19,612	26,584	14,098
Italy	.....	.....	126	92
Japan	.....	.....	40	.....
Netherlands	710	993	43	63
Norway	.....	.....	58	24
South African produce	.....	.....	208	278
Spain	51	19	.....	.....
Sweden	.....	.....	2,669	1,236
Switzerland	7,109	5,913	51,663	68,813
Turkey	4	5	.....	.....
United Kingdom	1,218,439	1,139,744	1,552,630	1,649,881
United States	24,697	56,271	36,445	79,032
Total	1,344,088	1,304,241	1,724,502	1,862,074
Children's shoes—				
Austria-Hungary	4,315	1,353	6,638	2,063
British India	42	19	57	10
Canada	4	5	12	15
China	2	.....	.....	.....
France	2,518	944	1,283	443
Germany	5,669	2,409	9,963	3,115
Italy	6	10	125	97
Netherlands	62	78	42	34
Norway	.....	.....	44	10
South African produce	.....	.....	71	88
Spain	1	5	.....	.....
Sweden	.....	.....	991	243
Switzerland	1,685	1,231	7,608	7,329
Turkey	4	10	.....	.....
United Kingdom	1,069,127	678,045	1,288,225	902,599
United States	3,448	4,102	6,987	8,078
Total	1,086,883	688,211	1,322,046	924,124
Slippers, plimsolls, and Chinese footwear:				
Austria-Hungary	15,830	6,769	6,708	2,122
British India	126	15	69	15
Canada	.....	.....	12	15
China	20,770	9,816	1	.....
France	4,626	1,913	1,233	448
Germany	18,458	8,608	10,112	3,188
Hongkong	100	44	.....	.....
Italy	7	.....	173	117
Japan	211	19	.....	.....
Mauritius	2	.....	.....	.....
Netherlands	12	15	42	34
Norway	.....	.....	44	10
Persia	.....	.....	1	.....
Spain	72	15	.....	.....
Sweden	.....	.....	991	243
Switzerland	1,679	487	6,639	6,375
United Kingdom	164,619	74,934	1,274,840	889,956
United States	3,674	1,966	6,961	8,019
Total	230,186	104,601	1,307,826	910,542
Grand total	.....	4,485,429	6,459,549	7,039,023

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MARKET CONDITIONS.

The bureau lacks a full report on the footwear market in British South Africa, but the following from the pen of Consul General G. H. Murphy, Cape Town, and Consul J. P. Bray, Johannesburg, published in daily Commerce Reports for December 19, 1917, is of interest:

Cape Province has numerous firms which manufacture boots and shoes. Many of these are engaged in the production of high-class footwear, though, as a rule, the better class of footwear that is popular in this country, is obtained from overseas. The foreign producer, with his highly specialized factories, is able, with the aid of the importing merchant, to flood the market here with enormous quantities of boots and shoes, either made for the South African trade, or forming a part of his surplus output. The result is that the South African producer is unable to command a sufficient market to warrant extensions of his plant to meet large calls which may be made by the wholesaler. He must content himself with producing high-grade footwear in small quantities for the retailer.

Large quantities of boots and shoes are being received from the United States, partly as a result of the impossibility of obtaining adequate supplies elsewhere. A firm, which desires to place such goods on this market, probably will find that the best method to pursue for the proper extension of trade is to make such an arrangement as manufacturers in the United States generally insist upon—that is, to place the trade in the hands of a firm of manufacturers' agents, either for the separate Provinces or for the entire Union. In the latter case the agent either personally visits all sections of the country, or has numerous travelers canvassing the communities. In the former case, when a local firm accepts an agency for a particular district, other agencies should be established so that the manufacturer will be represented throughout South Africa. Many manufacturers' agents in Cape Town maintain representation in other important centers.

Customarily a manufacturer's agent, when receiving orders from customers, places them by cable with the American firm, and the goods are shipped directly to the purchaser. Payment for the goods in such cases is arranged between the manufacturer and agent when completing the contract. At present, as a result of the war, manufacturers in the United States and other countries are insisting largely upon all business being conducted on a cash basis.

A considerable amount of business with this country is done through shipping and commission houses, the manufacturer usually receiving cash at time of shipment and the shipping houses extending credit to the purchasers. For such credit an exchange is charged amounting to something more than 6 per cent interest per annum; in fact, it is usually 2½ per cent for draft at 90 days. American shippers usually limit terms of credit to draft at 90 days' sight. Many firms in this country have a London house through which payments are remitted in such cases.

Manufacturers' agents in South Africa usually charge a commission of 5 or 10 per cent on the value of all goods disposed of by their efforts. In this connection, American firms placing their products on this market through the medium of an agent should bear in mind that in order to maintain satisfactory relations with their representatives, commissions should always be paid the agents for goods sold in this country so long as a contract with the agent is in operation, whether the agent places the order or whether a consumer receives goods without the knowledge of the agent. Some agents expect the manufacturer to assist to a certain extent in advertising goods, though as a general rule the representative assumes the expense of all advertising. Such matters are usually agreed upon beforehand.

Imports of American goods previous to the outbreak of the war were usually made via England, though at present a large volume of merchandise is being imported directly from the United States. By the direct route the goods are received at an earlier date, and the possibility of loss en route is greatly reduced. Whenever possible it is preferable to quote prices c. i. f. port of landing, otherwise f. o. b. vessel at port of shipment. Local merchants realize that at present it is impossible in many instances to quote prices c. i. f.

The present retail prices of shoes in South Africa are much higher than the prewar prices, and average from $7.50 to $11.50 per pair.

The chief source of the supply of both men's and women's shoes in the Johannesburg district is the United Kingdom, whose manufacturers have obtained a very strong foothold here. Previous to the war a considerable proportion of the imports of the finer grades of women's shoes came from Austria, and the styles, quality, and price are said to have met with favor. Although American shoes are sold to some extent, the quantity is small in comparison with the importance of the industry in the United States. While the sale of men's shoes has encountered some prejudice, this has been

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due chiefly to the failure of American manufacturers to supply shoes which meet the taste of the local buyer, but any unpopularity that may have existed is disappearing as a result of the better class of shoe that is being imported.

Women's shoes of American manufacture are most favorably received in this market, and have a decided tendency to become more popular. This is true especially of shoes worn by the nonworking class, which, although not constituting such a large proportion of the population as in Europe and the United States, demands a high-grade shoe for morning shopping and afternoon social affairs. To this class the styles and qualities of the American shoes that are exported to this consular district are admirably adapted, although not so popular among those who are accustomed to wear the heavier and stouter boot.

Local dealers state that they are experiencing considerable difficulty in replenishing their stocks of women's shoes. This is due largely to English manufacturers having adapted their factories to military requirements. On the other hand, shipments from the United States, upon which greater dependence is placed than previously, have been affected by irregular and inadequate ocean communication between the two countries. In consequence, there has been a substantial increase in the retail prices of shoes of practically all descriptions. Ordinary black and brown walking shoes of glacé or calf now cost from $8.50 to $12.25; patent-leather house and walking shoes, $9.73 or higher; and boots, which now have cloth tops in many cases, owing to the scarcity of leather, from $14.50 to $19.50. The less expensive boots are still bought in considerable quantities, but are almost invariably prewar stock.

The most popular evening shoes are those made of brocade and plain satin, with paste buckles. Suéde shoes of all colors are also in demand, and prices range from $9.73 to $14.60. Various kinds of bedroom slippers are worn, but those made chiefly of felt and quilted satin, and selling at $1.34 to $4.25, appear to be most widely sought, while those trimmed with fur are sold to a small extent.

High shoes are worn by women according to the variations of fashion, but the tendency is to restrict their use on account of the warmth of the climate for the greater part of the year. The demand for white canvas and suéde walking shoes is large. Prices for ordinary canvas shoes, which are imported largely from Switzerland, range from $3.10 to $9.75; but with the present disturbed conditions in ocean communication, a further increase is quite likely.

In order to get a footing in this market, it will be necessary for an American firm either to open its own branch in South Africa, or to send a representative to travel throughout the district, or grant an exclusive agency to some established firm. The representative should be prepared to advertise the goods, and in that way clearly put before the buying public an article for which there is a comparatively large demand. In any case the firm should be prepared to encounter strong competition on the part of houses which already are established.

CANADA.

Canada does not show quantities in its statistics of imports of boots and shoes.

The imports of footwear other than that of rubber increased in value from $1,647,312 in 1908 to $4,362,417 in 1913, or 164.8 per cent. The Canadian official reports divide these imports into three classes, "Boots and shoes, slippers, and insoles of leather not otherwise provided for," "Boots and shoes of leather, pegged or wire fastened, with unstitched soles, close edged," and "Boots, shoes, slippers, and insoles of all kinds except of rubber and leather."

In the imports of all three classes the United Kingdom and the United States are the predominating factors, imports from other countries being negligible. Total imports of the first class grew from $1,514,896 to $4,008,505, 164.6 per cent. The share of the United Kingdom in this class was $106,066 in 1908, and $485,755 in 1913, an increase of 358 per cent, while the figures of the United States were $1,403.645 in 1908 and $3,483,997 in 1913, a gain of only 148.2 per cent. The share of the United Kingdom in the second class of Canada's imports of footwear was $13,240 in 1908 and $62.867 in 1913, a gain of 374.8 per cent; that of the United States was $8,491 in 1908 and $39,988 in 1913, a gain of 370.9 per cent. Total imports of the second class increased during the period under discussion from $21,731 in value to $102,987, or 373.9 per cent. Imports under Canada's third class of footwear grew from $110,685 in 1908 to $250,925 in 1913, or 126.7 per cent, and the share of the United States therein grew from $33,606 to $40,261, or 198.0 per cent, while that of the United Kingdom increased from $49,347 to $180,250, or 265.3 per cent.

The value of goods imported, as recorded in the annual report of the Canadian Department of Customs on trade and navigation represents the fair market value of such goods when sold for home consumption in the principal markets of the country

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whence and at the time when the same were exported directly to Canada. Statistics are for the fiscal year ending March 31.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO CANADA.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908	1913
Bootsand shoes, slippers, and insoles of leather not otherwise specified:		
Austria-Hungary	$3,982	$2,432
British East Indies	3	.....
China	600	133
France	320	11,478
Germany	155	20,165
Hongkong	46	959
Italy	27	.....
Japan	43	.....
Netherlands	.....	5
Newfoundland and Labrador	.....	40
Portugal	.....	36
Spain	.....	41
Sweden	9	21
Switzerland	.....	2,514
Turkey—		
Asiatic	.....	720
European	.....	209
United Kingdom	106,066	485,755
United States	1,403,645	3,483,997
Total	1,514,896	4,008,505
Boots and shoes of leather, pegged or wire fastened, with unstitched soles, close edged:		
Germany	.....	$132
United Kingdom	$13,240	62,867
United States	8,491	39,988
Total	21,731	102,987
Boots, shoes, slippers, and insoles of all kinds, except rubber and leather:		
Austria-Hungary	932	3,568
China	5,848	1,929
France	7,277	726
Germany	9,046	14,338
Hongkong	3,110	3,933
Japan	804	1,512
Netherlands	.....	2,881
Norway	569	1,246
St. Pierre	20	.....
Switzerland	.....	281
Turkey	126	.....
United Kingdom	49,347	180,250
United States	33,606	40,261
Total	110,685	250,925
Grand total	1,647,312	4,362,417

There are no recent reports available in the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce on the market for shoes in Canada.

CHILE.

In the official report of imports into Chile the quantities of some classes of boots and shoes are stated in dozens (understood to mean dozen pairs) while those of other classes are stated in kilos (each equal to 2.2046 pounds avoirdupois). In 1908 the value of Chile's imports of footwear was $216,727 and in 1913 it was $335,685, an increase of 54.9 per cent. Only four classes, viz, boots and shoes for men, women, children, and infants, assume special importance, but there are various other classes, such as clogs, sporting shoes, slippers, sandals, etc., imports of which were limited. Boots and shoes for men increased from 30,518 pairs in 1908, value $87,196, to 32,602 pairs, value $95,072, in 1913, a gain of 6.8 per cent in quantity and 9 per cent in value. The United Kingdom, the United States, and Germany were the principal suppliers of these imports. The share of the United Kingdom increased from 11,463 pairs, value $432,798 in 1908, to 14,421 pairs, value $41,832, in 1913, a gain of 25.8 per cent in quantity and 27.5 per cent in value; that of the United States decreased from 3,921 pairs, value $11,688, to 1,788 pairs, value $22,130, a loss of 54.5 per cent in quantity but a gain of 89.3 per cent in value; Germany's share decreased from 10,634 pairs, value $31,800, to 8,454 pairs, value $23,906, a loss of 20.5 per cent in quantity and 24.8 per cent in value. The same countries were the principal sharers in the imports of boots and shoes for women. The figures were: United Kingdom, 3,663 pairs, value $6,800, in 1908, and 8,640 pairs, value $16,026, in 1913, a gain in quantity of 135.9 per cent and in value 135.7 per cent; the United States, 925 pairs, value $41,746 in 1908, and 13,002 pairs, value $23,756, in 1913, a gain of 1,305.6 per cent in quantity and 1,260.6 per cent in value; Germany, 4,948 pairs, value $7,140, in 1908, and 20,636 pairs, value $39,118, in 1913, a gain of 317.1 per cent in quantity and 447.9 per cent in value. Total imports of women's footwear increased from 13,021 pairs, value $21,149, to 49,485 pairs, value $92,274, a gain of 280 per cent in quantity and 336.3 per cent in value. Imports of children's footwear increased from 25,452 pairs, value $19,644, to 33,486 pairs, value $37,655, a gain of 31.6 per cent in quantity and 91.7 per cent in value. In this class the United Kingdom and Germany were leaders,

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the figures of the former country being 16,296 pairs, value $11,154, in 1908, and 19,813 pairs, value $22,707, in 1913, a gain of 21.6 per cent in quantity and 103.6 per cent in value; figures for Germany, 4,728 pairs, value $4,261, in 1908, and 7,137 pairs, value $7,815, in 1913, a gain of 51 per cent in quantity and 83.4 per cent in value. The imports of infants' boots and shoes increased in the period under discussion from 8,623 dozen pairs, value $55,533, in 1908, to 10,028 dozen, value $65,990, in 1913, a gain of 16.3 per cent in quantity and 18.8 per cent in value. In this class the United Kingdom, Germany, and France were the leading participants. The share of the United Kingdom rose from 2,788 dozen, value $18,835, to 5,953 dozen, value $38,666, a gain of 113.5 per cent in quantity and 105.3 per cent in value; Germany's share decreased in quantity but advanced in value from 1,826 dozen, value $11,990, in 1908, to 1,818 dozen, value $12,109, in 1913, a loss of 0.4 per cent in quantity and a gain of 1 per cent in value; the share of France decreased from 3,078 dozen, value $18,332, to 1,694 dozen, value $11,139, a loss of 44.9 per cent in quantity and 39.2 per cent in value. The class "Shoes, pumps, and slippers" assumed some importance in 1913, nearly one-half of which was supplied by Germany. Foreign sporting shoes, the importations of which are comparatively unimportant, were mainly contributed by the United Kingdom.

Under the new customs tariff of Chile, in effect May 10, 1916, declared values are recorded. Heretofore the values of imported goods, as shown in the annual reports of that country, have been based on an official valuation tariff, prescribed by the President and issued annually for the succeeding calendar year. This valuation tariff contained 3,559 items. It was originally drawn up in 1907. Some sections have been modified from time to time, but no thoroughgoing revision of the rates has been undertaken. Thus, throughout the years 1912 to 1915, coal, coke, and manufactured fuel (briquets) were valued uniformly at 20 gold pesos per metric ton, or $7.42 per long ton. These articles are imported chiefly from the United Kingdom and Australia, and the British f. o. b. prices during the same years were $3.94, $4.15, $4.01, and $5.08 per long ton.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO CHILE.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Boots and shoes:				
For infants—	*Dozen.*		*Dozen.*	
Austria-Hungary	29	$191		
Belgium			51	$338
France	3,078	18,332	1,694	11,139
Germany	1,826	11,990	1,818	12,109
Italy	140	920	30	173
Spain	661	4,598	206	1,355
Switzerland			28	184
United Kingdom	2,788	18,835	5,943	38,666
United States	99	654	288	2,026
Uruguay	2	13		
Total	8,623	55,533	10,058	65,990
For men—	*Pairs.*		*Pairs.*	
Argentina	252	735	245	694
Austria-Hungary	144	420		
Belgium	120	353	183	475
China			12	35
France	2,702	6,036	827	3,860
Germany	10,634	31,800	8,454	23,906
Italy	374	700	199	559
Peru	1	3		
Spain	577	1,457	473	1,381
Switzerland	324	1,180		
United Kingdom	11,463	32,798	14,421	41,832
United States	3,921	11,688	7,788	22,130
Uruguay	6	26		
Total	30,518	87,196	32,602	95,072

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO CHILE—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Boots and shoes—Continued.				
For women—	*Pairs.*		*Pairs.*	
Argentina	168	$307	492	$870
Austria-Hungary	540	1,024	842	1,538
Belgium	.....	.....	747	1,506
China	.....	.....	24	44
France	2,048	2,667	4,256	7,870
Germany	4,948	7,140	20,636	39,118
Italy	78	289	.....	.....
Spain	219	387	846	1,546
Switzerland	432	788	.....	.....
United Kingdom	3,663	6,800	8,640	16,026
United States	925	1,746	13,002	23,756
Total	13,021	21,149	49,485	92,274
For children—				
Argentina	.....	.....	336	341
Austria-Hungary	36	39	108	127
Belgium	.....	.....	564	611
France	2,676	2,799	2,383	2,633
Germany	4,728	4,261	7,137	7,815
Italy	.....	.....	540	591
Spain	.....	.....	528	578
Switzerland	444	353	.....	.....
United Kingdom	16,296	11,154	19,813	22,707
United States	1,272	1,038	2,077	2,252
Total	25,452	19,644	33,486	37,655
Shoes, sporting, with soles of rubber:	*Pounds.*		*Pounds.*	
China	.....	.....	31	41
France	690	914	260	345
Germany	1,060	1,405	2,070	2,742
Spain	.....	.....	53	70
United Kingdom	4,365	5,782	6,563	8,693
United States	130	172	730	967
Total	6,245	8,273	9,707	12,858
Shoes, pumps, and slippers, with soles of leather:[1]				
Argentina	.....	.....	3,567	1,181
Austria-Hungary	.....	.....	1,473	488
China	141	47	31	10
France	5,348	1,771	1,071	355
Germany	1,369	453	791	262
Japan	26	9	661	219
Spain	386	128	3,230	1,069
Switzerland	.....	.....	128	42
United Kingdom	2,229	738	690	228
United States	2	1	8,338	2,761
Total	9,501	3,147	19,980	6,615
Shoes, pumps, and slippers, with soles of leather:[1]	*Dozen.*		*Dozen.*	
Austria-Hungary	30	197	.....	.....
Belgium	242	1,590	.....	.....
France	842	5,557	.....	.....
Germany	975	6,737	.....	.....
Italy	52	342	.....	.....
Netherlands	8	53	.....	.....
Spain	147	1,015	.....	.....
United Kingdom	251	1,784	.....	.....
United States	26	172	.....	.....
Total	2,573	17,447	.....	.....

[1] In 1908 and 1913 certain kinds of "shoes, pumps, and slippers with soles of leather," with the exception of the district of Punta Arenas, where they were free, were subject to specific duty per dozen; other kinds were dutiable ad valorem. For statistical purposes, therefore, two classes differing in minor unexplained details appear in the official report under the same title.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO CHILE—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Shoes, pumps, and slippers, with or without soles of leather:	*Dozen.*		*Dozen.*	
Argentina			11	$85
Belgium			481	3,179
China			1	11
France			285	1,977
Germany			1,483	10,274
Italy			5	70
Japan			20	136
Spain			54	366
United Kingdom			666	4,680
United States			51	390
Total			3,057	21,168
Clogs, with soles of wood or leather:				
Belgium			1	3
France	168	$1,046	228	1,428
Germany	79	527	95	721
Spain	2	13		
United Kingdom	298	1,344	121	785
Total	547	2,930	445	2,937
Sandals:	*Pounds.*		*Pounds.*	
Argentina			926	307
China	37	12		
France	3,393	1,123		
Germany	2	1	26	8
Spain	822	272	2,407	797
United Kingdom			11	4
Total	4,254	1,408	3,370	1,116
Grand total		216,727		335,685

MARKET CONDITIONS.

The following statement relative to matters pertinent to the footwear trade in Chile is presented: [1]

There is a certain demand for clogs with wooden or leather soles, especially among the inhabitants in the southern Provinces of Chile, where the rainfall is very considerable.

There are no opportunities for the sale of other than high-grade imported footwear in Chile at the present time. Five years ago the average factory cost of American and European shoes imported into Chile was in the neighborhood of $3.85, according to statements of representative shoe dealers in Santiago and Valparaiso. To-day, owing primarily to the vastly improved quality of the products turned out by domestic factories and also to the higher duties on footwear and the increased factory costs in the United States, it is seldom that shoes in men's and women's lines are invoiced for sale to Chile at a price of less than $5. It is estimated that over half of the total imports during 1917 were shoes the factory cost of which was more than $5.50. The term "medium grade" has thus come to mean in the Chilean shoe trade what was formerly considered as "high grade" from the point of view of both factory cost and retail price.

Throughout the Chilean market the retail prices of all imported commodities are higher than before the war. The general average increase is about 45 per cent. There appears to be little probability that prices will return to a normal level before the close of the war, first, because the factory or invoice prices of most American products have significantly advanced in their home market, and, second, because freight rates continue to be well above the normal, with no signs of reduction. It must be recognized, however, that a percentage of the advance in retail prices must be charged to additional profits on the part of Chilean importers.

[1] From "Markets for Boots and Shoes in Chile and Bolivia," by H. G. Brock, Special Agents Series No. 174. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 25 cents.

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equal proportions. Patent-leather vamps with dull or cloth tops are popular for young girls.

A line of girl's shoes which has enjoyed considerable favor is a patent kid turn pump, three-quarters vamp, ankle strap, bow, and plain toe. Probably the most extensively used boy's shoe is a patent vamp, mat top, button shoe, single sole, furnished with toe cap. Sizes usually carried by Santiago and Valparaiso dealers are 2 to 6 in boy's lines and 1 to 2 in youths' lines. In girls' lines sizes 8 to 11½ are carried, with the greatest call for 9's. Widths D and E are needed.

The United States is not getting as large a share of Chile's trade in infants' and babies' footwear as seems desirable. While the market is naturally not so large as for children's and adult's shoes, there is a considerable sale of infants' footwear in the principal cities of the Republic.

Seventy-five per cent of the children's sandals imported into Chile in 1913 was supplied by Great Britain and France, the total value amounting to $13,187. In infants' lines the total value of imports was $1,892, of which the United Kingdom furnished $1,134. Since that year imports in both children's and infants' leather sandals have greatly fallen off, until in 1916 less than $1,300 worth of both kinds were imported.

There is really no national sport in Chile, although association football, cycling, tennis, horseback riding (including hunting and paper-chasing), boxing, and golf are popular. Of these, golf and tennis are indulged in particularly by the foreign colonies. The demand for sporting goods is comparatively large, and there are several stores making a specialty of sport goods of all kinds. In addition, most retail shoe stores carry a line of certain kinds of sport shoes.

Association football is played extensively in all parts of the country. There is hardly a village which does not have its team, and a great deal of interest is taken in intercity matches. Nearly all secondary schools and colleges, as well as large business houses, banks, stores, and factories maintain association football clubs. As a natural result, the number of football shoes used during the year is large. Formerly the great bulk of these shoes were imported, but at the present time they are largely made by local shoe factories. England and Germany each furnished, prior to the war, a good many association football shoes at a price low enough to permit a wide sale. English imports of association football shoes came principally from the factory of William Shillcock, in Birmingham.

Two distinct types of foootball shoes were imported, the first, a patented shoe under the trade-mark "William MacGregor," which sold at retail for $5.90, and the second, a cheaper grade, which sold for $5.10. Both were equipped with ankle reinforcements, instep strap, and leather cleats. Sample No. 7 is a football shoe modeled along the lines of the English association football shoe which for many years enjoyed a wide sale in Chile. It is equipped with leather cleats and an instep reinforcement strap, and is manufactured in a Santiago factory, entirely of native tanned leather, to sell at wholesale for $5.25 and to retail for about $6. Cheaper football shoes are turned out in large quantities. One type, made of tan side leather, retails for $4.15. Another style, made of gray chrome-tanned cowhide, retails for $5.10.

Except for a limited use by the younger element in the American colony in Santiago and Valparaiso and the employees of the American copper and iron mining companies, baseball is practically an unknown sport in Chile. There is usually an annual game played on the morning of the Fourth of July at Parque Cousino in Santiago. Shoes and other equipment are handled by two sporting-goods stores in the capital. The demand for baseball shoes can not be expected to increase very much in the near future.

Tennis has a large following, especially in Santiago, Valparaiso, and Vina del Mar, the popular watering place not far away from the last-named city. The sale of tennis shoes, particularly canvas shoes and sneakers, is large in these cities, and practically all of the business is in American hands at the present time. No separate classification is made in the official statistics for canvas shoes or sneakers, but the total value of the imports is known to be over $35,000.

Riding boots are used to a considerable extent in Chile. The sport of paper chasing has many devotees, and although a certain amount of riding boots are locally manufactured by fashionable custom shoemaking establishments, the great majority used by the Chilean society are imported. The requirements are for a stiff-leather, round-top, smart-appearing boot, furnished either in gun metal or russia calf. Retail prices in Santiago for riding boots are $35 for tan russia calf and $31 for gun metal. Imports are entirely from the United States, and the market is [illegible] very well covered at the present time.

The importance of the nitrate, copper, iron, and [illegible] industri[illegible] gives opportunity for the sale of a large number of b[illegible]

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to conditions in mining centers. The great bulk of the boots and shoes used by ordinary laborers are made locally in the domestic factories using power machinery. The very cheapest grades are sometimes made by hand in the districts near the mines.

There is scarcely any sale in Chile for corrective or "health" footwear, and no retail stores specialize in these articles. An unsuccessful attempt to handle shoes with built-in arch supporters was made several years ago by one of the largest department stores in Santiago. No special attempt to introduce such shoes to the public by advertising has ever been attempted.

There is a wide use of slippers in Chile, although it is not possible to tell the exact extent of the market, because separate statistics are not kept. For use in the winter months slippers are mostly of leather; for summer wear they are of canvas or felt. It is necessary to make a distinction between the house slippers worn by the better classes and the ordinary coarse slippers worn for everyday use by the poorer people. The former were imported chiefly from England, France, and Germany in the years prior to the war. Several substantial orders for American-made slippers have been placed by Santiago and Valparaiso dealers within the past three years.

CHINA.

China is another country which shows imports of boots and shoes of leather under a single class. Her imports under that head increased from 302,163 paris, value $315,847, in 1908, to 352,328 pairs, value $435,157, in 1913, an increase of 16.6 per cent in quantity and 37.8 in value. Approximately one-half of these imports came from Russia and Siberia by land frontier, the precise figures being 96,369 pairs, value in 1908 $124,915, and 146,217 pairs, value $233,854 in 1913, a gain of 51.7 per cent in quantity and 87.2 in value. Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States followed as principal suppliers. The figures for Japan are 38,116 pairs, value $27,664, in 1908, and 67,374 pairs, value $44,685, in 1913, a gain of 60.8 per cent in quantity and 76.8 per cent in value; the United Kingdom, 18,648 pairs, value $26,747, in 1908, and 29,441 pairs, value $40,999, in 1913, a gain of 57.3 per cent in quantity and 53.3 per cent in value; the United States, 10,081 pairs, value $20,305, in 1908, and 15,136 pairs, value $31,039, in 1913, a gain of 50.1 per cent in quantity and 52.9 per cent in value. Imports from Amur ports of Russia, which in 1908 amounted to 50,296 pairs, value $67,296, fell in 1913 to 2,784 pairs, value $2,989. In the year last named Germany became noticeable, imports from that country advancing during the period from 2,836 pairs, value $4,752, to 26,545 pairs, value $30,301. Imports from Hongkong were 60,514 pairs, value $27,545, in 1908, and in 1913, 43,228 pairs, value $27,427, indicating a general advance in value per unit of quantity in the latter year; but as Hongkong is mainly a distributing port, analysis of its figures would have no special value.

Prior to 1904 the values of imports shown in the Chinese official reports represented market values in a Chinese port, including import duty. For 1904 and subsequent years c. i. f. values are shown, including invoice cost, freight, and insurance, but not duty nor charges after the goods leave the ship's side.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO CHINA.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Boots and shoes of leather and other materials except rubber:				
Austria-Hungary	288	$137	690	$830
Belgium	60	67	1,900	3,336
British India	3,682	4,281	568	568
Canada	72	105		
Chosen			268	122
France	3	6	438	565
French Indo-China	9,116	6,557	2,235	2,580
Germany	2,836	4,752	26,545	30,301
Hongkong	60,514	27,545	43,228	27,427
Italy			1,601	398
Japan	38,116	27,664	67,374	44,685
Macao	8,962	4,509	5,233	2,479
Netherlands	1	4	14	26
Philippine Islands			51	29
Russia—Russia and Siberia—By land routing	96,369	124,915	146,217	233,854
Amur ports	50,296	67,296	2,784	2,989
Pacific ports	25	30	6,900	12,376
Siam	381	54	36	43
Singapore, Straits, etc.	2,713	873	349	278
Spain, including Gibraltar			1,320	233
United Kingdom	18,648	26,747	29,441	40,999
United States	10,081	20,305	15,136	31,039
Total	302,163	315,847	352,328	435,157

CUBA.

Cuba's imports of boots and shoes advanced from 2,984,905 pairs, value $2,087,080, in 1908, to 4,937,134 pairs, value $5,317,172, in 1913, the gain in quantity being 65.4 per cent and in value 154.8 per cent. These imports were drawn almost entirely from the United States and Spain. Imports from the former country in 1908 amounted to 2,149,402 pairs, value $2,342,839, and in 1913 to 3,722,521 pairs, value $3,910,445, a gain of 73.2 per cent in quantity and 66.9 per cent in value. Spain's figures for 1908 were 809,189 pairs, value $771,122, and for 1913 1,153,918 pairs, value $1,360,258, a gain in quantity of 42.6 per cent and in value 76.4 per cent. The share of the United States in Cuba's imports of footwear for men rose from 402,537 pairs, value $844,308, in 1908, to 713,958 pairs, value $1,477,290, in 1913, a gain of 77.4 per cent in quantity and 75 per cent in value. Spain's share in the same class was 219,765 pairs, value $327,436, in 1908, and 321,239 pairs, value $645,296, in 1913, the gain being 46.2 in quantity and 97.1 per cent in value. The gain of the United States in footwear for women was from 1,107,679 pairs, value $1,128,311, in 1908, to 1,857,776 pairs, value $1,814,644, in 1913, a gain of 67.7 per cent in quantity and 60.8 per cent in value. Spain's figures for the same class in 1908 were 173,126 pairs, value $131,530, and in 1913 277,217 pairs, value $223,130, a gain in quantity of 60.1 per cent, in value 69.6 per cent. In children's footwear the advance of the United States was from 636,922 pairs, value $367,024, to 1,141,002 pairs, value $613,472, a gain of 79.1 per cent in quantity and 67.1 per cent in value. For the same period and class, Spain advanced from 233,408 pairs, value $64,239, to 277,768 pairs, value $93,147, gaining 19 per cent in quantity and 45 per cent in value. The slipper trade of Cuba appears to have been mainly controlled by Spain, as that country contributed 88.3 per cent of the total imports in quantity in 1908 and 89.9 per cent of their value; in 1913 corresponding percentages were 83.3 per cent and 91.6 per cent.

The value of imported merchandise, as shown in Cuba's official reports, is the usual wholesale value in the country from which the article is imported, increased by the cost of all coverings or receptacles, as well as other charges and expenses incident to preparing the merchandise for shipment. Commission on an invoice is included, but not the consular fees. Incidental expenses, customhouse and statistical fees, papers and stamps, wharfage, etc., are also included in the dutiable value, but freight is not included, except in case of transhipment on a new bill of lading, when the charge for conveyance from the first to the second country must be included in the cost of the merchandise.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO CUBA.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Footwear for men:				
China			276	$72
France	155	$226	217	231
Germany			165	287
Mexico	28	70		
Spain	219,765	327,436	321,239	645,296
United Kingdom	6	17	167	371
United States	402,537	844,308	713,958	1,477,290
Total	622,491	117,057	1,036,022	2,123,547
Footwear for women:				
Austria-Hungary			1,560	2,236
China	100	14		
France	527	1,168	2,543	5,174
Germany	294	780	1,021	2,338
Mexico	13	20		
Spain	173,126	131,530	277,217	223,130
United Kingdom			100	34
United States	1,107,679	1,128,311	1,857,776	1,814,644
Total	1,281,739	1,261,823	2,140,217	2,047,556
Footwear for children:				
Austria-Hungary	12	4	84	20
France				
Germany	57	21		
Spain	233,408	64,239	277,768	93,147
United Kingdom				
United States	636,922	367,024	1,141,002	613,472
Total	870,399	431,288	1,418,854	706,639
Riding boots:				
Germany	1	9		
United States	25	174		
Total	26	183		
Slippers:				
Arabia			22,006	15,227
China	15,074	13,687	15,281	9,780
France	5,413	10,099	38	100
Germany	141	219		
Japan	2,066	1,291	16,730	10,160
Spain	182,889	247,914	277,688	398,678
United States	1,627	2,628	1,652	1,406
Total	207,210	275,838	333,395	435,351
All other footwear:				
China	2,373	548		
France	1	11	459	416
Germany	2	10		
Italy			48	23
Japan				
Spain	1	3	6	7
United Kingdom	41	108		
United States	612	394	8,133	3,633
Total	3,040	1,074	8,646	4,079
Grand total	2,984,905	2,087,080	4,937,134	5,317,172

MARKET CONDITIONS.

Following is an abstract from a report on market conditions of interest to the trade regarding the sale of boots and shoes in Cuba: [1]

Cuba is not only the most important Latin-American market for boots and shoes made in the United States, but also offers the best present market for American footwear in the whole world.

[1] From "Market for Boots and Shoes in Cuba," by H. G. Brock, Special Agents Series No. 133. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., and district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 5 cents.

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Owing to the phenomenal increase, which began late in 1914, in the demand for shoes for the belligerent armies of Europe, as well as for shoes for the civilian population in those countries where most of the shoe factories are entirely engaged in filling war orders, the year 1913 is the last calendar year for which comparisons of value can be drawn.

Many American shoe manufacturers are selling their product aggressively at the present time in South America. A few years ago, however, there were not more than half a dozen lines of American-made shoes sold there regularly, and to-day the sales possibilities of this market—in all countries and for many types of shoes—have not yet begun to be adequately developed.

The amount of footwear consumed annually in Cuba is extremely large. Assuming that the figures for the consumption of shoes are the same as the import figures and leaving out of consideration the domestic production, the country has the surprisingly large per capita shoe consumption of $1.87 per annum.

The poorest classes of the inhabitants, who would hardly be expected to pay more than $0.25 for a pair of cheap alpargatas, will now and then astonish fashionable retail shoe merchants by appearing in their establishments and purchasing a pair of fine shoes that sell for $6 or $8 a pair. Instances of this sort were given in several of the large cities on the island. It seems to be the ambition of many native Cubans, who have all their lives been accustomed to wearing canvas alpargatas, to own a pair of real leather shoes. Retailers state that in the winter months a large percentage of poor people, especially in Habana, are extremely partial to patent-leather oxfords for everyday wear. On account of excessive perspiration and the high rainfall, it is asserted that these patent-leather shoes spoil in a very few weeks, but the wearer invariably returns for another shoe of the same kind.

The Cuban people have a strong prejudice against going without footwear of some sort, although the reason for this is not entirely clear. In this respect Cuba is different from practically every other tropical country. However the prejudice originated, it has unquestionably had a good deal to do with the large per capita consumption of shoes in Cuba.

The general appearance of a shoe is what makes the sale in Cuba, not its wearing qualities. As a rule the purchaser expects a shoe to wear only about three months before being discarded and replaced by a new pair; it is seldom that shoes are resoled or repaired in any way. There is an entire absence of the cobbler's shop, so common in every city of the United States, and the fact that so few shoes are ever repaired in Cuba is a factor to be considered in connection with the extremely large per capita consumption of shoes there.

The most popular styles for the present season (1916) in men's footwear are made on an English last, with extension edges, and the regular English last heel (usually 8/8). Mahogany, cordovan, and the darker shades of russia calf are being used more and more in high-grade shoes where formerly the demand was for light-colored leathers. Combinations of light-colored leather tops and patent vamps are also in favor in the Cuban market, while not much of a call for cloth tops is felt. In the high-grade lines, a sole varying from very light to medium is preferred; the cheaper grades must be furnished with a heavy, substantial sole that will "stand up" under rough usage.

The blucher shoe was formerly very popular among the native Cubans, largely because of the difficulty many of them experienced in obtaining a good fit in the bal style of shoe, owing to high insteps. Many manufacturers have now so adapted their lasts, however, that this fault is not so pronounced in either bal shoes or blucher oxfords. The need for a high instep is more apparent in high than in low shoes, and certain lines of American shoes that are very popular in Cuba in oxfords do not meet with the same success in high cuts.

Many medium-grade shoes are made on the American last, and some jobbing houses insist that this last is by far the best for the native Cuban trade. The English last was first introduced into Cuba in 1913 and became popular in a few weeks; it is now used very freely in all parts of the island. A few years ago the Cuban market was flooded with shoes made on the French last. Practically every jobbing house put in a large stock, only to find that they could not move them readily, and at the present time many of these shoes are still on the warehouse shelves.

The Cuban foot is small, with sizes ranging mostly from 4 to 10. Sizes 6, 6½, 7, and 7½ are the best sellers, while the higher numbers, as a rule, sell to the colored purchasers. Width D is most often called for; width E, especially in a high-grade shoe, looks rather clumsy to native Cuban eyes.

Cord laces are practically the only kind for which there is any sale to-day.

The only competition which American-made men's shoes feel in the Cuban market, aside from the small domestic production of heavy work shoes, comes from the products of Spanish manufacturers. As previously mentioned, Spanish shoes once held the topmost place in the Cuban shoe trade, but since the first American intervention

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imports of footwear from Spain have fallen off to a very great extent. There has been a slight additional decrease noticeable since the outbreak of hostilities in Europe, which is accounted for largely by the fact that most of the Spanish factories have been very busily engaged in making shoes for European markets. Just now their domestic trade is especially good. A number of Cuban importers who are closely in touch with the Spanish shoe-trade situation believe that after the war Spain will devote more attention than ever before to increasing its shoe sales in Cuba.

The men's shoes of Spanish manufacture most commonly seen in Cuba are those made in the Balearic Islands. Most of these are made by hand on a typical Spanish last, with different variations in the swing and width of the toe. The product of the factory of Florit y Cia., Ciudadela, on the island of Minorca, is a Goodyear-welt shoe, however, and commands a wide sale, especially among Spanish clerks in Habana. The wholesale prices of Spanish shoes, according to their quality, are from $30 to $60 per dozen pairs. The leather most often used is a light-weight yellow calfskin of Spanish tannage; Spainards on the island are very partial to the various shades of yellow. At retail these shoes sell for $3.50 to $8 a pair.

The impression prevails among the Cuban shoe trade, wholesale and retail, that a certain amount of men's shoes will be imported from Spain for many years to come to satisfy a demand on the part of men, principally those of Spanish birth or allegiance, who will continue to buy Spanish shoes as they buy other merchandise of Spanish manufacture, because they are accustomed to their qualities and dislike to change. This is true more especially of middle aged and elderly men, since the young men of Spanish families have been largely converted into trying and using regularly shoes made in the United States. Although Spanish handmade shoes are very flexible and well made, it is generally conceded by retailers in all parts of the island that they do not give the same satisfaction as American-made shoes.

As Cuba is a tropical country, it might naturally be supposed that the use of oxford shoes would predominate, and this has been the case for the past few years, especially on the part of native Cubans. In spite of the very slight difference between summer and winter, the all-year-round demand for low shoes has usually been steady, with the summer months naturally showing the larger call of the two seasons. During the present season (1916), however, there appears to have been a noticeable decline in their use. It is believed that the recent increased use of cloth tops and light-weight leather tops in men's shoes, which has tended to make high shoes more comfortable for hot-weather wear, may account in part for the lessened use of oxfords in Cuba. More high canvas rubber-soled shoes have also been sold by Habana retailers in other years.

For formal wear native Cubans prefer a high button or bal shoe with a patent vamp and a mat top. Cloth tops are not greatly in demand. Pumps are rarely used at formal functions, although there is a small call for patent-leather pumps for wear at such social affairs as summer dances, especially in the larger cities. Composition soles are not desired in dress shoes even when purchased largely for dancing purposes. Cuban young men are not noticeably particular about the appearance of their dress shoes, and the least sign of wear in the upper means discarding that pair and purchasing another.

The same changes that have been experienced in the American domestic trade in women's shoes since the beginning of the European war, and more especially during the present year (1916), are reflected in the Cuban trade in women's footwear. In all parts of the island women who have hitherto been accustomed to paying from $2.50 to $4 for their shoes are now readily paying from $6 to $10 in recognition of the style value of the new article. During the late spring and early summer of 1916, when many American manufacturers were forced to raise prices as much as $0. 50 per pair each week for several weeks in some grades of women's shoes, Cuban retailers found no difficulty in passing these advances on to the consumer.

Cuban women, like the men, buy their shoes largely by general appearance rather than because of long wearing qualities. In the better grades of women's shoes the greatest demand at present is for a light, smart-looking, turned shoe. Kid in all colors, except white, is the favorite leather, with patent leather the second choice, especially in low cuts. In high-grade white goods there is a tremendous demand at present for buck. Cabretta, which was formerly very popular with the Cuban trade because of its flexibleness, is not liked at all now. High-grade shoes that are enjoying the greatest sale during the present season are furnished with very light soles, medium to high Louis XV heels (14/8 to 16/8 over-all measurements, with occasionally an 18/8), and medium-pointed plain toe. The heels must be leather-covered wooden, or leather-covered Louis.

Even with the present vogue in high 10-inch boots, there are more low shoes sold to women in Cuba than high cuts. Several years ago a few manufacturers tried to

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introduce the high boot more generally, but it was found to be a very difficult thing to accomplish. Even at present several retailers have stated that they are heavily stocked with high boots that are not selling well. For summer wear in Cuba the 10-inch boot appears to be too hot for comfort. They are purchased for the first time on account of their style attraction, but repeat orders are the exception. Some Habana retailers believe they will be used more extensively in the capital this winter. The consensus of opinion, however, among retail merchants in different parts of the Republic was unmistakably that, for the women's trade in any event, the low cut is the shoe for Cuba.

Some manufacturers begin their sizes with 2½. In Cuba there ia s fair demand for smaller sizes; that is, from No. 1 up. The largest sellers are sizes 2, 2½, 3, and 3½. The widths mostly used are D and E, with an occasional call for EE. The larger sizes are the rule in the Province of Pinar del Rio. Patent-leather pumps are good all-year-round sellers.

Silk linings or laces should not be used for the Cuban trade; on account of climatical conditions they deteriorate rapidly while in stock in the stores.

There is almost a total absence of barefooted children in Cuba. Every child uses some form of footwear, even if only cheap rope sandals. Turns are preferred in children's shoes to McKays and Goodyears. Sizes 1 to 5 are generally used without a heel; sizes 5½ to 8 have a one-lift heel; and sizes 8½ to 11½ and 12 to 2 are, as a rule, bought with a regular low heel.

Light-weight leathers are desired—mostly glazed kid in tan and black. Both button and blucher styles are liked. In Habana and the smaller towns a good many pumps and one-strap "baby dolls" are called for.

DENMARK.

In the interval between 1908 and 1913 Denmark changed its classification of imported boots and shoes, and the two classes of 1908, "Footwear with silk tops" and "Footwear, other kinds," became in 1913 simply "Boots" and "Shoes." This fact renders it impracticable to attempt any comparison as to the increase or decrease in imports of particular kinds of footwear between the years indicated. In the official reports of Denmark values of imports are not given by countries, but the annual average values per unit of quantity can be applied to quantities of the various countries if desired. In 1908 the total imports of footwear into Denmark amounted to 720,079 pounds, value $1,015,720, and in 1913 to 650,357 pounds, value $851,168, a loss of 9.68 per cent in quantity and 16.2 per cent in value. Germany, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Austria-Hungary, and the United States were the leading contributors. Germany's share was 436,176 pounds in 1908 and 470,462 pounds in 1913, a gain of 7.86 per cent; that of the United Kingdom, 19,565 pounds in 1908 and 48,942 pounds in 1913, a gain of 150.15 per cent; that of the Netherlands, 39,931 pounds in 1908 and 44,973 pounds in 1913, a gain of 12.63 per cent; that of Austria-Hungary, 14,791 pounds in 1908 and 44,754 pounds in 1913, a gain of 202.58 per cent; that of the United States, 103,751 pounds in 1908 and 14,991 pounds in 1913, a loss of 85.55 per cent. In 1913 Denmark's imports of boots were 285,275 pounds, value $380,828. Germany furnished 213,405 pounds, or 74.81 per cent; the United Kingdom, 13,007 pounds, or 4.56 per cent; the Netherlands, 33,289 pounds, or 11.67 per cent; Austria-Hungary, 7,496 pounds, or 2.63 per cent; the United States, 7,716 pounds, or 2.7 per cent. Of the imports of shoes, 336,643 pounds, value $433,624, Germany supplied 236,554 pounds, or 70.27 per cent; the United Kingdom, 33,951 pounds, or 10.09 per cent; the Netherlands, 11,023 pounds, or 3.27 per cent, Austria-Hungary, 33,951 pounds, or 10.09 per cent; the United States, 6,173 pounds, or 1.83 per cent. Denmark's imports of unspecified footwear of leather in the same year, amounting to 28,439 pounds, value $36,716, were contributed mainly by Germany, whose share was 20,503 pounds, or 72.09 per cent.

The values shown in the foreign-trade reports of Denmark are official valuations, determined annually by the Central Bureau of Statistics after consultation with commercial firms, experts, private merchants, etc. The average prices thus established are applied to the quantities declared, irrespective of the countries of origin.

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Total Imports of Footwear into Denmark.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Footwear, of leather:				
With silk tops—				
Austria-Hungary	27			
Belgium	30			
France	10			
Germany	853			
Sweden	13			
United Kingdom	12			
Warehouses	661			
Other countries	18			
Total	1,624	$2,680		
Other kinds—				
Austria-Hungary	14,764			
Belgium	2,126			
Danish Colonies	11			
France	613			
Germany	435,323			
Italy	222			
Netherlands	39,931			
Norway	610			
Russia	217			
Sweden	785			
Switzerland	605			
United Kingdom	19,553			
United States	103,751			
Warehouses	99,944			
Total	718,455	1,013,040		
Boots—				
Austria-Hungary			7,496	
Germany			213,405	
Netherlands			33,289	
Sweden			5,732	
Switzerland			3,748	
United Kingdom			13,007	
United States			7,716	
Other countries			882	
Total			285,275	$380,828
Shoes—				
Austria-Hungary			33,951	
Germany			236,554	
Netherlands			11,023	
Norway			220	
Sweden			5,071	
Switzerland			8,377	
United Kingdom			33,951	
United States			6,173	
Other countries			1,323	
Total			336,643	433,624
Without specification of the kind—				
Austria-Hungary			3,307	
Germany			20,503	
Netherlands			661	
Sweden			220	
Switzerland			220	
United Kingdom			1,984	
United States			1,102	
All other countries			442	
Total			28,439	36,716
Grand total	720,079	1,015,720	650,357	851,168

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MARKET CONDITIONS.

Below is given a brief summary of conditions in the boot and shoe trade of Denmark:[1]

The market in Denmark for American shoes, considering the limited population of the country, is good. American shoes have an excellent reputation and are able to compete, without great handicap in price, with Danish and German products, which hold the larger proportion of the trade. The demand for American shoes is steadily increasing and they are now found among practically all classes of Danish people. The American-shaped last is growing in favor among buyers of imported footwear, though a request is often made for the French form, in which case the purchaser is diverted usually to an Austrian shoe. The largest demand in women's lines is for a shoe with a tip or toe cap of patent leather in the case of a black shoe, and of self-tone if a colored shoe. The oxford is now more largely sold for both summer and winter wear than the high cut. Glazed kid in black and brown is the leather principally desired, the browns chiefly for summer wear and the blacks for winter. Cuban heels are generally used on women's shoes.

Purchasers of men's shoes usually demand the later American shapes in box or russia calf, with high toes and extension edges and with English or medium-high heels. Military heels, although sold in certain quantities, are not so popular as the lower styles. Men's sizes run from 7 to 10, in widths D, E, and F, the larger sales being in D and E widths. In women's shoes the sizes run generally from 4 to 6½, principally in D and E widths.

American-made shoes are not found on sale generally in Denmark outside of Copenhagen. It is stated, however, that considerable quantities are purchased by provincial dealers for customer's orders, from retailers in the capital city, and that doubtless sales could be increased if efforts were made by American exporters to develop the Danish provincial trade, as is done by Austrian and German competitors.

The American shoe owes its good reputation in Denmark to its proven satisfactory wearing qualities. The demand is steadily increasing.

DUTCH EAST INDIES.

According to official reports of the Dutch East Indies, shoemakers' work to the value of $129,970 was imported in 1908 and to the value of $247,211 in 1913, an advance of 90.2 per cent. The reports do not show quantities of the imports. The principal participants in the trade were the Straits Settlements, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. The share of the Straits Settlements grew from $72,234 in 1908 to $93,239 in 1913, a gain of 29.1 per cent; that of the Netherlands from $33,195 to $77,636, a gain of 133.9 per cent; and that of the United Kingdom from $13,137 to $41,782, a gain of 218 per cent. In 1913 Germany became a small factor in the trade, her contributions having risen from $4,486 in value in 1908 to $18,547 in 1913, a gain of 313.4 per cent. The shares of the Straits Settlements, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom in 1908 were 55.6, 25.6, and 10.1 per cent, respectively. Corresponding percentages with respect to the imports of 1913 were 37.7, 31.4, and 16.9.

Foreign-trade values in official reports of the trade of the Dutch East Indies are official valuations. Goods dutiable ad valorem (earthenware, drugs, foods, textiles, etc.) are valued according to the average prices prescribed by the Director of Finance, other valuations being established on the basis of data furnished by the Department of Agriculture, Industry, and Trade, by chambers of commerce, and by private merchants. Government stores are recorded at their purchase price. Figures given herein do not include Government stores.

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in Scandinavia," by A. B. Butman, Special Agents Series No. 63. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents and by district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 5 cents.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO THE DUTCH EAST INDIES.

Countries whence imported.	1908	1913	Countries whence imported.	1908	1913
America	$2,528	.....	Japan	111	1,584
Australia	39	.....	Netherlands	33,195	77,636
Austria-Hungary	245	$1,341	Portuguese East Indies	8	.....
Belgium	567	.....	Siam	4	.....
British India	115	.....	Spain	2	.....
China	760	.....	Straits Settlements	72,234	93,239
Denmark	9	.....	Switzerland	10	.....
Egypt	2	.....	United Kingdom	13,137	41,782
France	630	5,379	Other countries	.....	7,703
Germany	4,486	18,547			
Hongkong	1,615	.....	Total	129,970	247,211
Italy	273	.....			

MARKET CONDITIONS.

The following extract from a report by Consul B. S. Rairden, Batavia, Java, published in Commerce Reports of December 30, 1916, contains a brief statement on market conditions:

There was quite an increase in the trade in boots and shoes during 1915, the imports being valued at $275,900 as against $160,900 in 1914, but the value in 1914 was evidently for Java only. Business in American footwear also shows a small increase, the imports being valued at $5,600 as against $5,050 in 1914.

On looking over the monthly statistics for Java, which are incomplete, it appears that over $80,000 worth of shoes were reported as coming from the Straits Settlements, but, as no shoes are manufactured there, this must represent transhipped goods, of which a good share, no doubt, is of American origin. Imported shoes, especially the American, are increasing in favor in this colony, for they are found to be more durable than those turned out by the local Chinese and native shoemakers.

Footwear prices have increased somewhat; on December 31, 1915, local makes of men's shoes, high laced, cost $7 a pair; low shoes, $5; and pumps, $3. Men's imported shoes, high laced, cost $8 a pair; low shoes, $6: and pumps, $5 and $6. Women's shoes, local make, were selling from $2 to $5 a pair, and the imported articles from $3 to $8, according to the make.

EGYPT.

Egypt, in its statistical reports of imports, makes no subdivision of the general class "Footwear of leather of all kinds." Its imports under that title declined from 1,097,137 pairs, value $918,652, in 1908, to 792,006 pairs, value $886,586, in 1913, the loss in quantity being 3.5 per cent and the same in value. The chief competing countries in 1908 were the United Kingdom, Morocco, Switzerland, and Austria. All of these show a decreased trade in 1913, with the exception of the United Kingdom. Comparative figures for the latter country are 221,246 pairs, value $320,895, in 1908, and 336,163 pairs, value $452,833, in 1913, the percentages of gain being 51.9 in quantity and 41.1 in value. The figures for Morocco are 383,611 pairs, value $188,205, in 1908, and 191,985 pairs, value $75,905, in 1913, a loss in quantity of 50 per cent and in value of 59.7 per cent. Corresponding data for Switzerland are 179,769 pairs, value $171,324, and 64,692 pairs, value $83,764, a loss in quantity of 64 per cent, in value 51.1 per cent. Austria in 1908 furnished 80,036 pairs, value $113,224, and in 1913, 56,738 pairs, value $80,027, a loss in quantity of 29.1 per cent, in value 29.3 per cent. The share of the United States made a marked increase in the period referred to, the figures being 13,600 pairs, value $26,672 for 1908, and 18,387 pairs, value $50,117, for 1913, a gain of 35.2 per cent in quantity and 87.9 per cent in value. The shares of France and Germany became somewhat noteworthy in 1913, amounting to respective percentages of 3.7 and 3.4 in weight and 7.1 and 4.8 in value.

Import values in the Egyptian official reports represent the price of the goods at the place of shipment or purchase, plus the cost of transportation and insurance. Declared values are shown in some cases, but for the bulk of the imports official values are employed. These latter are fixed for stated periods, varying from one month to one year, in consultation between the Customs Administration and the principal merchants interested.

Official values are applied to more than 50 per cent of the articles imported.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO EGYPT.

Countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Austria-Hungary	80,036	$113,224	56,738	$80,027
Belgium	2,243	1,152	785	1,310
British India			18,186	21,126
British possesions in the Mediterranean	585	321	267	198
British possessions in the Far East	14,102	19,520		
France	22,899	24,779	29,592	62,959
French possessions in the Mediterranean			400	158
Germany	7,845	10,242	27,260	42,708
Greece	1,496	771	1,083	559
Italy	1,863	2,378	294	316
Morocco	383,611	188,205	191,985	75,905
Netherlands			294	727
Spain	741	816		
Switzerland	179,769	171,324	64,092	83,764
Turkey	167,101	38,353	45,880	13,880
United Kingdom	221,246	320,895	336,163	452,833
United States	13,600	26,672	18,387	50,117
Total	1,097,137	918,652	792,006	886,586

MARKET CONDITIONS.

A brief summary of conditions in the footwear trade of Egypt about 1913 is given below: [1]

Imports of boots and shoes from the United States are almost wholly confined to men's and women's goods of the higher grades. Purchases from Great Britain include large quantities of cheaper lines for both sexes and all ages, and are widely distributed among retail dealers. American goods are handled in a comparatively small number of shops and find sale among the wealthier Egyptians, government officials, and the foreign (Italian, French, and Greek) population. Dealers state that American shoes are increasingly popular and sales are constantly being extended. A reliable merchant in Cairo, handling exclusively one well-known American make, states that certain customers among the wealthy pashas buy a new pair of shoes regularly once a fortnight.

Practically all American styles for men and women are salable, and in all sizes and widths; in men's goods, glazed kid and matt, russia and willow calf blucher bals, buttons, and oxfords, with 6/8, 8/8, and 10/8 heel, raised toe, and medium and light sole. Glazed kid in black and browns is the preferred leather, 75 per cent of the total footwear sold being in glazed kid, three-fourths of which are in browns. High cuts and oxfords are sold in about equal quantities.

Women's American-made shoes are also finding an excellent market in Egypt. Statements as to men's shoes regarding leathers desired and the relative proportions of the same apply also to women's. Women's lines carry the regulation Cuban heel. There is a limited demand for canvas goods for both sexes.

Switzerland supplies more boots and shoes for the Egyptian trade than any country other than England. There are several retail stores here maintained for the exclusive sale of a product named the "Run-Over." This shoe is sold as an American product, though dealers in genuine American-made articles state that the goods thus named are purchased largely from various Continental manufacturers, including the Swiss.

FINLAND.

The importation of footwear other than that of rubber into Finland in 1908 amounted to 477,426 pounds, valued at $766,239, and in 1913 to 292,780 pounds, value $428,037, a decrease of 38.7 per cent in weight and 44.1 per cent in value. In 1908 the official statistics of imports were given under two classes, "Boots and shoes even half finished" and "Wooden shoes with uppers of leather." The figures of 1908 are not fully distributed by countries, but Russia is shown to have supplied 15.8 per cent of the weight and 13.3 per cent of the value of the first class in that year. In 1913 this class was

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in Belgium, Spain, and Egypt," by A. B. Butman, Special Agents Series No. 73. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 5 cents.

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subdivided into footwear "with uppers of fine leather or of textile materials excepting sail, duck, or silk," and "with uppers of common leather and other similar material." Under the first of these classes importations in 1913 amounted to 249,036 pounds, value $399,683, the principal participating countries being Germany and Russia in proportions of 71.3 and 19.3 per cent with respect to weight and 73.9 and 16.3 per cent with regard to value, respectively. Goods of the second class came chiefly from Germany, the United Kingdom, and Russia, with respective percentages of 33.2, 31.1, and 31.5 as regards weight and 34.3, 32.3, and 28.9 with respect to value. Finland in 1913 drew about 44.9 per cent, both by weight and value, of its imports of wooden shoes with uppers of leather from Sweden.

Finnish import statistics are based on frontier values, calculated on the basis of the average price of merchandise at the time it reaches the frontier.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO FINLAND.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes, including half-finished:				
Russia	74,787	$101,481	.....	.....
Other countries	399,092	663,826	.....	.....
Total	473,879	765,307	.....	.....
With uppers of fine leather or of textile materials, except sail, duck, or silk—				
Austria-Hungary	.....	.....	6,546	$10,887
Belgium	.....	.....	4	7
Canada	.....	.....	44	73
Denmark	.....	.....	9,786	16,278
France	.....	.....	668	11,112
Germany	.....	.....	177,512	295,263
Italy	.....	.....	4	7
Netherlands	.....	.....	906	1,507
Norway	.....	.....	37	62
Russia	.....	.....	47,840	65,025
Sweden	.....	.....	1,282	2,132
Switzerland	.....	.....	152	253
United Kingdom	.....	.....	4,242	7,055
United States	.....	.....	13	22
Total	.....	.....	249,036	399,683
With uppers of common leather and other similar material—				
Belgium	.....	.....	278	194
Canada	.....	.....	2	2
Denmark	.....	.....	97	68
France	.....	.....	50	36
Germany	.....	.....	13,585	9,514
Netherlands	.....	.....	179	125
Norway	.....	.....	53	37
Russia	.....	.....	13,051	7,998
Sweden	.....	.....	1,060	743
Switzerland	.....	.....	9	6
United Kingdom	.....	.....	12,776	8,947
Total	.....	.....	41,140	27,670
Wooden shoes with uppers of leather:				
Denmark	.....	.....	348	91
Germany	.....	.....	579	152
Sweden	.....	.....	1,168	307
Switzerland	.....	.....	185	49
United Kingdom	.....	.....	322	85
Total	3,547	932	2,604	684
Grand total	477,426	766,239	292,780	428,037

MARKET CONDITIONS.

The manufacture of footwear in Finland has greatly increased in recent years, and this doubtless accounts in great measure for her decreasing imports. Three new factories were established in 1910, being an increase of three over 1909, with an increase

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of 54.5 per cent in operatives and 47.8 per cent in production. By 1912 the number of factories had increased to 12. Conditions about this time are summarized as follows:[1]

All comparatively small plants, with outputs ranging from 60 to 600 pairs each per day. Four of the factories are situated in Tammerfors, two in Helsingfors, two in Uleaborg, and the remaining four in different towns. The Finnish manufacturers are progressive in spirit and hard working. Modern shoemaking has been established in the country only about 12 years, but during that time constant advance and development have been shown. The progress made is more commendable because previous to the introduction of machine-made shoes most of the footwear produced is said to have been very ordinary and crudely made, although satisfactory to the mass of the trade. Manufacturers have accordingly been forced to contend with unskilled labor and at the same time to create a better taste on the part of the customer.

Most of the present output leaves much to be desired as regards both quality and appearance. Owing to the recent establishment of the industry and to certain adverse conditions, Finnish-made shoes may not be compared justly with American products. One firm, however, is turning out some goods that compare favorably with medium-grade American shoes.

All factories of considerable size are buildings of modern construction, fully equipped with shoemaking machinery, which is almost entirely American.

The total daily output of footwear in the 12 factories is 2,764 pairs, as follows: 1,910 pairs McKay-sewn, 1,550 pairs of which are manufactured on American machines and 360 pairs on competing machines; 658 pairs welted, 478 pairs of which are made on American and 180 pairs on other machines; and 110 pairs pegged and 86 pairs turned, all manufactured on American machines.

The equipment competing with American machines is principally that made by Johnson Fils, Paris; Moenus, Frankfort on the Main; and Robert Kiehle, Leipzig, the latter furnishing machines for sewing an imitation McKay shoe.

There is no real specialization in the Finnish industry. Five manufacturers confine the output of their factories to McKay-sewn goods, but the articles are of several grades and for both sexes and all ages. The remainder produce both welted and McKay goods, and in two instances a few pairs of turned and pegged work.

Very few operations are done by hand in the factories and no home workers are employed. Both French and American shaped lasts are used, the proportion being approximately half and half; on women's lines possibly the proportion is slightly in favor of the French shape. Boots and shoes for men and women, if built on the American-shaped last, carry a military or Cuban heel, and if built on the French form a low flat heel for men's and a Louis heel for women's. As a whole, the footwear production is of about the same weights as are made in the United States. Box calf, oil grain, glazed kid, and a little patent stock are all cut, but in grades running largely lower medium and cheap. Very few canvas shoes are made, owing to the brief summer season. On the other hand there is a good demand for felt shoes and considerable quantities are produced both in the machinery-equipped establishments and in the hand shoemaking shops.

Investigation shows that most of the men's imported shoes on the market are made by German manufacturers, while among women's goods those of Austrian make appear to predominate. Men's English-made shoes are also sold in considerable quantities, being supplied principally by the firms of Crockett & Jones and C. & J. Clark (Ltd.). These men's English and German made goods are largely built on American-shaped lasts, usually of a medium swing style, with moderately raised toe and medium heel; in fact, the shoes are imitations in like leathers of conservative American lines. As both German and English manufacturers find considerable sale for imitation American footwear, it seems that genuine American-made goods if properly introduced and handled ought likewise to find a market here.

The predominance of Germany in the trade is ascribed, first, to the willingness of German manufacturers to grant a reasonable period of credit to Finnish retail dealers, and, secondly, to the lower prices at which German-made shoes can be sold. The retail prices for German lines range from 20 to 25 Finish marks ($3.86 to $4.83) per pair. A retail shoe dealer in Helsingfors states that his purchases from one German manufacturer alone amount to 90,000 Finnish marks ($17,370) annually. The lines handled by the Finnish dealer are placed in cartons bearing a picture of the American flag of sufficient size to cover the end of the carton exposed to view from the shelves In this instance at least the reputation of the American-made shoe serves as the best advertisement for a German-made product.

[1] See "Shoe and Leather Trade in Russia," by A. B. Butman, Special Agents Series, No. 68, 1913. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 5 cents.

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English-made boots and shoes are retailed at 25, 28, and special lines at 37 Finnish marks ($4.83, $5.40, and $7.14) per pair. As stated, the larger demand in men's imported shoes is for the conservative American styles, principally in box calf, glazed kid, and patent leather. French shapes are more popular than American for women's wear, though I am told a tendency toward the adoption of the American style has been evident during the past two years.

FRANCE.

The official reports of France do not show values by countries, but the total value per unit of quantity for the year may be used in connection with the quantities of the various countries if desired. Between 1908 and 1913 France divided the single class of the former year, "Boots and shoes," into four classes, viz: "Top boots," "Boots and half boots," "Low shoes," and "Footwear for children." The gain in total imports for the period was from 744,658 pairs, value $2,155,785, to 1,235,487 pairs, value $4,403,503, or 65.9 per cent in quantity and 104.3 in value. The principal contributors to the total imports of footwear in 1908 were the United Kingdom, Switzerland, the United States, Germany, and Belgium, in percentages of 52.7, 15.1, 9.3, 8.4, and 7.7, respectively. In 1913 the United Kingdom and the Netherlands furnished France with nearly all her top boots, with percentages of 49.3 and 3.4, respectively. Boots and half boots were mainly furnished by the United Kingdom, Germany, Switzerland, the United States, Belgium, and Spain, their respective percentages being 60.6, 13.3, 9.4, 7.7, 4.3, and 3.7. Algeria was far in the lead for the year in question in the furnishing of France with low shoes, its percentage of the total imports of that class being 54.1; next in order were Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and the United States with respective percentages of 19.8, 10.9, and 7.6. To the unimportant class of footwear for children, Switzerland and the United Kingdom contributed in a leading way with percentages of 58.8 and 25.2. The share of the United Kingdom from 1908 to 1913 in the total imports of boots and shoes into France increased from 392,564 to 612,951 pairs, 56.1 per cent; Switzerland's increase was from 112,704 to 149,782 pairs, 32.9 per cent; that of the United States, from 69,610 to 93,686 pairs, 34.6 per cent; that of Germany, from 62,351 to 133,051 pairs, 113.4 per cent; that of Belgium declined from 57,425 to 44,486 pairs, 22.5 per cent. Negligible figures for some of these countries may have been included under "All other countries" in certain cases.

For methods of computing values in foreign-trade statistics, see page 74.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO FRANCE.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Boots and shoes:				
Algeria	10,053			
Austria-Hungary	15,877			
Belgium	57,425			
Germany	62,351			
Greece	5,060			
Morocco	167			
Spain	14,882			
Switzerland	112,704			
United Kingdom	392,564			
United States	69,610			
Other foreign countries	3,598			
Other French colonies and protectorates	367			
Total	744,658	$2,155,785		
Top boots:				
Germany			430	
Netherlands			2,515	
United Kingdom			3,688	
United States			669	
Other foreign countries			180	
French colonies and protectorates			3	
Total			7,485	$101,122

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO FRANCE—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Boots and half boots:				
Algeria			213	
Austria-Hungary			4,375	
Belgium			41,194	
Germany			126,840	
Italy			2,209	
Netherlands			2,250	
Spain			35,014	
Switzerland			89,690	
United Kingdom			577,163	
United States			73,089	
Other foreign countries			509	
Other French colonies and protectorates			85	
Total			952,631	$3,677,156
Low shoes:				
Algeria			141,295	
Belgium			1,903	
Egypt			1,250	
Germany			5,306	
Italy			5,031	
Japan			641	
Morocco			779	
Netherlands			1,067	
Spain			157	
Switzerland			51,603	
Turkey			1,542	
United Kingdom			28,457	
United States			19,928	
Other foreign countries			1,203	
Other French colonies and protectorates			777	
Total			260,939	604,335
Footwear for children:				
Belgium			1,389	
Germany			475	
Spain			26	
Switzerland			8,489	
Tunis			2	
United Kingdom			3,643	
Other foreign countries			408	
Total			14,432	20,890
Grand total	744,658	$2,155,785	1,235,487	4,403,503

MARKET CONDITIONS.

Following is a summary of conditions relating to footwear in France about 1912:[1]

The French customer demands the most advanced fashion in every respect, and almost invariably light-weight lines. The Louis XV heel so generally worn by French women five years ago has been largely supplanted by the Cuban heel. Louis XV heels are still used on house and evening shoes for women, but it is stated that requests for street shoes with French heels are about one-tenth of what they were five years ago. The long straight French "forme" has also been to a large extent displaced by the typical American last. Elegance and comfort, combined with style and finish, and variety in shape and shade are characteristic requirements of the trade.

The present season is largely given over to colors and fancy combinations for both men's and women's footwear. Colored cloth or gaiter tops, with vamp of self, or darker toned, or black or white leather, and black and white gaiter tops with black patent vamp are combinations frequently seen. Boots of this character are worn, as previously stated, by both men and women, and for ordinary street wear, the combination often carrying out in the gaiter top the color of trousers or costume.

Sizes and widths desired are practically the same as in the United States, with a larger proportion of small sizes (1½ and 2) for women.

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in France and Switzerland," Special Agents Series No. 57, by A. B. Butman, 1912. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 5 cents.

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Both French and English boots and shoes as at present manufactured are copies, and in some instances most excellent copies, of the genuine American-made product; consequently buyers of more limited means satisfy their needs with the lower-priced article.

Imports from Germany are principally in the cheaper grades, while those from Austria-Hungary are mostly handmade house and evening shoes.

As regards the extension of American shoe trade with France, the situation in this, as in other countries previously reported upon, demands properly directed sales methods, preferably an American retail shoe store personally maintained and directly managed, numerous examples of which already exist in Great Britain and on the Continent. The business of these houses is reported as being satisfactory and constantly increasing. Second in value would be placing the goods on the market through an agency, exclusive, of course, since any agent handling several foreign lines, or goods of his own and foreign lines, is naturally inclined to push the one yielding the larger profit.

The French market is well worth the personal study of any boot and shoe manufacturer who intends entering upon export trade.

GERMANY.

According to her official reports, Germany's imports of footwear of all kinds, excepting that of rubber, increased from 1,712,752 pounds, value $2,547,076, in 1908, to 1,995,602 pounds, value $2,657,032, in 1913, a gain of 16.51 per cent in quantity and 4.32 per cent in value. Although in the reports referred to footwear is divided into five classes, only two of them are of sufficient importance to merit special consideration and analysis, viz, "Footwear of leather with soles of other materials than wood, weighing between 600 and 1,200 grams (2.65 and 1.33 pounds) per pair; also boot uppers of leather of all kinds, with elastics, without regard to weight," and "Footwear of leather weighing 600 grams or less per pair." In Germany's imports of the first of these classes the figures of the leading participating countries were as follows: United States, 174,163 pounds, value $282,030, in 1908, and 392,639 pounds, value $550,970, in 1913, a gain of 125.44 per cent in quantity and 95.36 per cent in value; Austria-Hungary, 303,574 pounds, value $491,708, in 1908, and 216,272 pounds, value $303,450, in 1913, a loss of 28.76 per cent in quantity and 38.29 per cent in value; the United Kingdom, 86,641 pounds, value $140,420, in 1908, and 122,796 pounds, value $178,500, in 1913, an increase of 41.73 per cent in quantity and 27.12 per cent in value; the Netherlands, 39,462 pounds, value $64,022, in 1908, and 62,831 pounds, value $59,500, in 1913, a gain of 59.22 per cent in quantity but a loss of 7.06 in value; Switzerland, 11,023 pounds, value $17,850, in 1908, and 18,078 pounds, value $25,466, in 1913, a gain of 64 per cent in quantity and 42.67 per cent in value; France, 14,770 pounds, value $24,038, in 1908, and 18,078 pounds, value $18,088, in 1913, a gain of 22.40 per cent in quantity and a loss of 24.75 per cent in value; Belgium, 10,803 pounds, value $17,612, in 1908, and 6,834 pounds, value $12,138, in 1913, a loss of 36.74 per cent in quantity and 31.08 per cent in value; Italy's share in this class in 1908 amounted to 33,510 pounds, value $54,264, but that country had no reported share in Germany's imports of footwear in 1913, although she may have had unimportant transactions under the head of "All other countries." The total imports of the class were 685,189 pounds, value $1,109,556, in 1908, and 850,755 pounds, value $1,194,046, in 1913, a gain of 24.16 in quantity and 7.61 per cent in value. In Germany's imports of boots and shoes weighing 600 grams or less per pair, figures of the principal participants were as follows: Switzerland, 103,616 pounds, value $201,348, in 1908, and 228,397 pounds, value $399,364, in 1913, a gain of 120.43 per cent in quantity and 98.35 per cent in value; Austria-Hungary, 359,570 pounds, value $698,768, in 1908, and 197,312 pounds, value $345,100, in 1913, a loss of 45.13 per cent in quantity and 50.61 per cent in value; the United Kingdom, 26,896 pounds, value $52,122, in 1908, and 55,776 pounds, value $97,580, in 1913, a gain of 107.38 per cent in quantity and 87.21 per cent in value; France, 36,817 pounds, value $71,638, in 1908, and 41,667 pounds, value $72,828, in 1913, a gain of 13.17 per cent in quantity and 1.66 per cent in value; Netherlands, 14,330 pounds, value $27,846, in 1908, and 8,598 pounds, value $14,994, in 1913, a loss of 40 per cent in quantity and 46.15 per cent in value; Italy in this class also played quite a part in 1908, its share in that year amounting to 11,905 pounds, value $23,086, with an entire absence of figures in 1913, although, as indicated with respect to the previous class, small transactions in the latter year may be included under "All other countries"; totals of the class under discussion amounted to 653,443 pounds, value $1,269,730, in 1908, and 738,100 pounds, value $1,290,912, in 1913, a gain of 12.96 per cent in quantity and 1.67 per cent in value.

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Imports of footwear with soles of wood, and slippers and house shoes are not shown by countries. Nearly one-third of the heavy footwear with soles of other than wood came from Austria-Hungary in 1908, that being the only country separately specified. The trade in footwear of textiles, not of special significance, was divided in fairly equal proportions between Switzerland, the United Kingdom, Austria-Hungary, and France.

For methods of computing values in foreign-trade statistics, see page 77.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO GERMANY.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Footwear of leather of all kinds, including that made from hides with the hair still on and that made from fish or reptile skins:				
With soles of wood	2,425	$952	2,204	$476
With soles of other materials—				
Weighing more than 1,200 grams (2.65 pounds) per pair—				
Austria-Hungary	21,164	14,756	.....	.....
Other countries	34,612	24,276	.....	.....
Total	55,776	39,032	59,083	38,318
Weighing more than 600 (1.33 pounds) grams and up to 1,200 grams per pair; also boot uppers of leather of all kinds, with elastics, without regard to weight—				
Austria-Hungary	303,574	491,708	216,272	303,450
Belgium	10,803	17,612	6,834	12,138
France	14,770	24,038	18,078	18,088
Italy	33,510	54,264	.....	.....
Netherlands	39,462	64,022	62,831	59,500
Switzerland	11,023	17,850	18,078	25,466
United Kingdom	86,641	140,420	122,796	178,500
United States	174,163	282,030	392,639	550,970
Other countries	11,243	17,612	13,227	45,934
Total	685,189	1,109,556	850,755	1,194,046
Weighing 600 grams or less per pair—				
Austria-Hungary	359,570	698,768	197,312	345,100
Belgium	.....	.....	20,282	35,462
France	36,817	71,638	41,667	72,828
Italy	11,905	23,086	.....	.....
Netherlands	14,330	27,846	8,598	14,994
Switzerland	103,616	201,348	228,397	399,364
United Kingdom	26,896	52,122	55,776	97,580
United States	91,050	176,834	175,927	307,734
Other countries	9,259	18,088	10,141	17,850
Total	653,443	1,269,739	738,100	1,290,912
Slippers and house shoes	14,550	14,042	9,920	6,426
Footwear of spun wares or of felt, having soles of other materials sewn on:				
Austria-Hungary	.....	.....	42,769	16,184
France	36,155	13,566	38,581	14,518
Sweden	40,565	15,232	.....	.....
Switzerland	.....	.....	122,135	46,172
United Kingdom	152,338	57,596	66,138	24,990
Other countries	72,311	27,370	65,917	24,990
Total	301,369	113,764	335,540	126,854
Grand total	1,712,752	2,547,076	1,995,602	2,657,032

MARKET CONDITIONS.

Following is a brief statement of conditions in the footwear trade of Germany about the year 1911:[1]

Although there has been marked development in the domestic industry, the market for American boots and shoes is a considerable one and may, I believe, be further increased, notwithstanding certain unfavorable circumstances.

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in Germany, 1912," by A. B. Butman.

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Purchases from Austria-Hungary are important and include chiefly articles for ladies' wear, especially boots and shoes in lighter weights, house slippers, and dress footwear. In other than these special lines the American exporter does not encounter very keen competition from other foreign countries. More competition is met among certain German manufacturers who are now producing lines of higher-class goods, although the number of manufacturers whose products may claim to vie with the grades and classes imported from the United States is very limited.

There is no market in Germany for the cheaper grades of American boots and shoes, trade in which line is supplied by the constantly increasing production of domestic factories, at retail prices so low that American competition is out of the question. Only the better grades of footwear should be sent to this country, the demand for American products being found among the upper classes and more largely among the young men and young women than the middle-aged or older people. The various novelties in ladies' goods imported each season find ready buyers in the "society set." As regards styles, it may be stated that possibly 40 per cent of the so-called more up-to-date shapes, that is, styles sold as "latest" in New York, are popular here, but the bulk of the trade is done in footwear built on lasts specially designed.

The trade is chiefly in men's and women's goods; the high price of children's American-made shoes as compared with the domestic product constitutes a great drawback to their sale. Nearly all leathers find sale, including box calf, vici kid, patent colt, and patent calf, but vici kid is most popular. Some kangaroo and suede leathers are also sold. Black is by far the best selling color, although tans enjoy a certain popularity during summer months. Sizes and widths should run from medium to large and broad, D and E widths being good sellers. The retail prices of American boots and shoes range from 16.50 to 30 marks ($3.93 to $7.14) per pair for men's and women's, and from 10.50 to 15 marks ($2.50 to $3.75) for children's sizes, 7 to 13.

As regards the outlook, American boots and shoes for adults are to-day in good favor and in good demand. Whether this will continue, or increase, or whether our footwear is now at the height of its popularity is a mooted question. I am inclined to believe, after interviews with dealers in various parts of the Empire, that we may continue not only to hold our own, but also to enjoy a normal growth in sales.

The shoe trade in Germany is now, as a whole, in excellent condition, due chiefly to a freer expenditure of money by the people. A few years ago, I am told, it was customary among different classes to have footwear resoled, often more than once. This practice of course lessened the output and actual turnover by manufacturers, but increased the cobbling shoemakers' trade. To-day the better classes are, it is stated, buying pair for pair as many shoes as the American consumer. This change in conditions has been of great benefit to shoe manufacturers, the output of German factories in some cases being doubled.

The average grade of German-made boots and shoes for adults is popularly priced in all styles at 12.50 marks ($2.97) per pair. German-made footwear competing with imported goods is retailed at 15.50 and 18.50 marks ($3.69 and $4.40). Custom and to-order goods are sold up to 30 marks ($7.14) per pair.

Competing English lines retail at prices ranging from 12.50 to 25 marks ($2.97 to $5.95) per pair. Very small quantities are sold at 20 marks ($4.76) and upward in proportion to the amount of business done. English-made tennis shoes are in good demand, and sporting-goods stores as a rule carry English-made football shoes.

The more important retailers of American footwear in Germany obtain stocks direct from the manufacturer in the United States. The majority of the smaller retail dealers place orders through commission agents, from whom small or large quantities can be obtained. It would seem that the American manufacturer not already established here can hardly expect to obtain a considerable business other than through an exclusive agency or the establishment of his own retail stores.

ITALY.

The trade reports of Italy indicate that imports of footwear, not including rubber goods, amounted to 181,765 pairs, value $312,921, in 1908, and to 1,302,894 pairs, value $3,394,689, in 1913, a gain of 616.8 per cent in quantity and 984.84 per cent in value. Of the three classes of boots and shoes shown only one seems to call for a special analysis of figures, viz, that covering those made of leather. The total imports into Italy under this class amounted to 177,995 pairs in 1908, valued at $309,177, and to 1,277,464 pairs in 1913, valued at $3,353,087, a gain of 617.7 per cent in quantity and 984.52 per cent in value. In this class in 1913 the United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Switzerland, and Belgium were the leaders. The share of the United Kingdom was 21,520 pairs, value $37,380, in 1908, and 420,788 pairs, value $1,104,407, in 1913, a gain of 1,855.33 per cent in quantity and 2,854.54

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per cent in value; those of the United States, 45,837 pairs, value $79,628, in 1908, and 323,227 pairs, value $848,406, in 1913, a gain of 605.17 per cent in quantity and 965.46 per cent in value; Germany, 8,091 pairs, value $14,053, in 1908, and 197,625 pairs, value $518,726, in 1913, a gain of 2,342.53 per cent in quantity and 3,591.21 per cent in value; Austria-Hungary, 76,570 pairs, value $133,001, in 1908, and 147,854 pairs, value $388,088, in 1913, a gain of 93.10 per cent in quantity and 191.79 per cent in value; Switzerland, 3,168 pairs, value $5,502, in 1908, and 95,861 pairs, value $251,617, in 1913, a gain of 2,925.92 per cent in quantity and 4,473.19 per cent in value; Belgium, 1,112 pairs, value $1,932, in 1908, and 19,287 pairs, value $50,620, in 1913, a gain of 1,634.44 per cent in quantity and 2,520.08 per cent in value. The minor class covering footwear of cloth, excepting that of silk and silk velvet, was furnished principally by Germany, France, and Austria-Hungary, and that covering footwear not otherwise specified by the same countries, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Frontier values are stated in the annual returns of Italian trade. The values are determined on the basis of averages established annually by the Central Commission for Customs Values, for the various kinds of merchandise according to countries of origin.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO ITALY.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Footwear of leather:				
Algeria	12	$21	17	$45
Argentina	1,116	1,933	1,496	3,927
Austria-Hungary	76,570	133,001	147,854	388,088
Belgium	1,112	1,932	19,287	50,620
Brazil			29	76
British India and Ceylon	44	76	7	18
Central America			418	1,197
Denmark	20	35		
Egypt	711	1,235	64	168
Eritrea	8	14		
France	18,623	32,348	67,042	175,973
Germany	8,091	14,053	197,625	518,726
Malta	385	669	595	1,562
Mexico	26	45		
Netherlands			2,084	5,470
Norway	12	21		
Spain	82	142		
Sweden	113	195		
Switzerland	3,168	5,502	95,861	251,617
Tunis	475	825	831	2,181
Turkey, European	70	122	269	706
United Kingdom	21,520	37,380	420,788	1,104,407
United States	45,837	79,628	323,227	848,406
Total	177,995	309,177	1,277,464	3,353,087
Footwear of cloth, except silk and velvet:				
Austria-Hungary	91	53	2,275	2,415
France	885	512	2,938	3,119
Germany	99	57	3,873	4,111
Switzerland	45	26	206	219
Tunis	51	30		
United Kingdom			961	1,020
United States	1,335	773	37	41
Total	2,506	1,451	10,292	10,925
Footwear of any other kind, except of rubber:				
Algeria	17	31		
Austria-Hungary	308	559	4,175	8,461
Belgium			40	81
Egypt	17	31	14	28
France	272	494	2,352	4,766
Germany	310	562	2,361	4,784
Russia			42	85
Spain		109	72	146
Switzerland			534	1,100
Tunis	60	109	14	28
United Kingdom	149	270	2,786	5,646
United States	131	236	2,748	5,569
Total	1,264	2,293	15,138	30,677
Grand total	181,765	312,921	1,302,894	3,394,689

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MARKET CONDITIONS.

Below is given a summary statement of conditions affecting the boot and shoe trade of Italy about 1913: [1]

An estimate of the shoes sold in Italy annually places the number roughly at 100,000,000 pairs, of which 90,000,000 are of leather and the remainder of silk, velvet, canvas, etc. Of the 90,000,000 pairs of leather shoes considerably less than 1,000,000 are imported at present, the remainder being the output of Italian industry. During the past few years, however, there has been a steadily increasing demand for foreign-made shoes, and American manufacturers have succeeded in entering the Italian market to a considerable extent. To judge by the figures, which show augmented imports of American shoes each year, their goods have met with increasing favor.

A conservative estimate places the number of shoes made to order by the almost innumerable small cobblers scattered throughout the Kingdom at 25 per cent of the total consumption, and this percentage is even thought by some to be as high as 40 to 50 per cent. In any case there is still a numerous class of Italians who have a fixed prejudice against machine-made shoes, no matter how well made, and this prejudice operates, and will continue to operate, for a long time against sales of foreign shoes as well as against the Italian manufacturer of the machine-sewed article.

That shoes of American shape have a strong hold on the public at large is evident in the window displays of stock by the more important shoe dealers in all of the large Italian cities. "Forma Americana" or "Tipo Americano" are familiar signs in such shops, even though the merchant only handles Italian or other foreign makes. This fact is an initial advantage in the future outlook for a further increase in our trade here, but certain drawbacks have been observed which tend to restrict imports of American shoes, or, at least, lessen sales of the number which would otherwise be bought.

In considering the reports from the several consular officers in Italy it is apparent that there are a number of reasons why sales of American shoes are less than they should be. With the popularity enjoyed by the American shoe as to style and workmanship, it is a matter of regret that our manufacturers have not succeeded, although their business has shown considerable increase, in securing even better results, and that sales of English-made shoes have shown a considerably larger percentage of increase than our own. The drawbacks to larger sales may be summarized as follows:

1. Credit terms often not liberal enough.
2. Insufficient assortment of styles and sizes carried by most dealers.
3. High, and often varying, prices demanded by dealers and, in this connection, no apparent effort by the manufacturer or agents to control these prices and keep them fixed and within reasonable limits.
4. Too many agents to whom commission must be paid, thus increasing cost of goods to dealers.
5. In certain cities where the outlook is favorable, as reported, the opening of stores selling exclusively American shoes and carrying a large and varied stock would tend materially to increase sales. The conditions in the larger cities should be studied in this respect.

It is hoped that some of the suggestions made in this respect will be considered by our manufacturers, and that if followed an increased business will result.

MEXICO.

The imports of footwear into Mexico during the period from 1908 to 1913 decreased from 930,612 pairs, value $1,715,272, to 827,419 pairs, value $1,666,176, a loss of 11.09 per cent in quantity and 2.9 per cent in value. Only one class assumes special importance in these importations, namely, that including high and low shoes of leather or cloth not combined with precious metal, over 20 centimeters (7.87 inches) sole length. The imports of this class during the period under discussion decreased from 815,377 pairs, value $1,576,173, to 741,200 pairs, value $1,566,856, a loss of 9.1 per cent in quantity and a little more than one-half of 1 per cent in value. The chief sharers in this class of imports in 1908 were the United States and Spain. The figures credited to those countries in that year were, respectively, 732,742 pairs, value $1,377,697, 89.9 and 87.4 per cent of total weight and value; 67,859 pairs, value $165,929, 8.3 and 10.5 per cent of total weight and value. In 1913 the imports

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in Italy and Austria-Hungary," by A. B. Butman, Special Agents Series No. 70, 1913. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 10 cents.

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from the United States had increased to 709,810 pairs, value $1,492,869, 95.8 and 95.3 per cent of total weight and value; and those of Spain to 84,103 pairs, value $41,925, both 2.7 per cent of total. By this time France and the United Kingdom had become slightly prominent in Mexico's imports of the class referred to, with respective figures of 5,499 pairs, value $12,980, and 3,870 pairs, value $11,101. Imports of the same grade of shoes from 12 to 20 centimeters in length dropped from 63,982 pairs, value $70,045, to 31,424 pairs, value $33,107, between 1908 and 1913, and those of "slippers and shoes of leather or other material not combined with silk, even if ornamented with silk or base metal, of more than 20 centimeters in length" increased from 33,279 pairs, value $21,401, to 44,086 pairs, value $35,481. Nearly all the imports under the two classes last referred to originated in the United States.

Invoice values (valores de factura) are shown in the official reports for the merchandise imported into Mexico, the amounts expressed in foreign currencies being converted into Mexican pesos at the rate of $0.4984 per peso. Statistics are for fiscal years ending June 30.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO MEXICO.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
High and low shoes of leather or cloth of all kinds or material, provided they are not combined with precious metal:				
Up to 12 centimeters sole length—				
France	203	$103	.....	.....
Germany	332	95	50	$21
Spain	41	58	2	1
United Kingdom	2	3	58	25
United States	1,846	1,694	823	476
Total	2,424	1,953	933	523
Over 12 and up to 20 centimeters sole length—				
Austria-Hungary	50	85	.....	.....
British Honduras	21	33	.....	.....
France	132	156	337	391
Germany	265	257	170	139
Guatemala	3	3	1	2
Panama	1	.....	.....	.....
Spain	533	252	1	1
Switzerland	.....	.....	282	204
United Kingdom	75	107	6	15
United States	62,902	69,152	30,627	32,354
Total	63,982	70,045	51,424	33,107
Over 20 centimeters sole length—				
Austria-Hungary	5,522	12,888	1,148	2,372
Belgium	16	40	86	194
British Honduras	334	551	1,123	1,859
China	296	319	199	116
Cuba	.....	.....	1	2
France	2,067	3,620	5,499	12,980
Germany	750	1,845	1,455	3,022
Guatemala	19	29	43	59
Italy	3,973	8,483	.....	.....
Panama	1	1	.....	.....
Spain	67,859	165,929	17,705	41,925
Switzerland	.....	.....	261	357
United Kingdom	1,798	4,771	3,870	11,101
United States	732,742	1,377,697	709,810	1,492,869
Total	815,377	1,576,173	741,200	1,566,856
Slippers of all kinds up to 12 centimeters sole length, of leather or other material, not combined with silk, even if ornamented or embroidered with silk or base metal:				
Austria-Hungary	14	6	.....	.....
France	70	25	.....	.....
Spain	.....	.....	2	1
United States	463	135	243	236
Total	547	166	245	237

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO MEXICO—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Slippers and shoes of leather or other material, not combined with silk, even if ornamented with silk or base metal:				
From 12 to 20 centimeters sole length—				
Austria-Hungary	112	$38	24	$11
China			11	3
France	158	84	274	53
Germany	64	49		
United States	1,968	1,273	2,466	1,743
Total	2,302	1,444	2,775	1,810
Of more than 20 centimeters sole length—				
Austria-Hungary	1,551	973	237	116
China	621	143	580	114
France	12,606	5,754	10,685	4,093
Germany	1,250	687	1,717	1,231
Italy	1	1		
Japan	400	218	303	19
Spain	1,006	955	4,510	2,868
Turkey	26	6		
United Kingdom	92	32	162	102
United States	15,726	12,632	25,892	26,938
Total	33,279	21,401	44,086	35,481
Leather boots for men:				
Austria-Hungary			3	3
Belgium	3	13		
British Honduras	1	3		
France	1	5	5	88
Germany	7	32	7	30
Italy	42	110		
Spain	30	165		
United Kingdom	28	230	96	525
United States	12,589	43,532	6,595	27,516
Total	12,701	44,090	6,706	28,162
Grand total	930,612	1,715,272	827,419	1,666,176

MARKET CONDITIONS.

The Bureau has no report of recent date on conditions in the footwear trade of Mexico, but the following article in Commerce Reports of November 22, 1917, by Vice Consul Thomas Dickinson, Guadalajara, is quite complete:

Manufacturers in the United States have practically exclusive control of the trade in shoes in the Matamoros district, as all shoes worn by the middle and wealthier classes are of American make. A cheaper grade, which is sold to a considerable extent, is manufactured in Leon, Guanajuato, Mexico, and the distributing point for the State of Tamaulipas is Monterey, Nuevo Leon. Samples of this shoe for adults of both sexes shown by a local merchant were marked $3, United States gold per pair. Their noticeable feature, distinguishing them from those of American manufacture, other than the quality of material and workmanship, was that the back was unstiffened or pliable, which was considered a drawback to their sale, and that the sole lacked pliability, being very stiff, as if reinforced with some material other than leather. The shoes are of a very cheap grade both in style and material, although no leather substitute had been used and they were partially handmade.

Practically all shoes worn by the people along the border in Mexico are purchased in the adjacent American cities and worn across in order to escape the payment of duty, which is 1.75 pesos Mexican gold per pair for ordinary footwear and adds considerably to the price of the shoe. There is also more or less trade through United States mail-order houses.

The people of the interior cities of the State either purchase through mail-order houses or from merchants who get their stocks from dealers in Brownsville, Houston, San Antonio, or other business centers of Texas.

A form of sandal known in Mexico as a "huarache" is worn to a great extent by farm laborers. This consists of a leather sole, generally tied with leather thongs, although in some cases plaited grass soles and rope thongs are used.

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The sole leather about one-quarter of an inch in thickness is sold in pieces about 1 foot square for 60 cents, and is sufficient to make a pair of sandals. These are formed and the thongs affixed by the wearer. The thongs are about three-eighths of an inch wide, one-eighth of an inch thick, and 3½ feet long, retailing at 20 cents United States currency per pair. The materials for making the sandals are generally sold by all small dealers.

Guadalajara is a good market for American shoes. Many establishments deal in this line, some exclusively.

At present the quickest and best route of shipment is from San Francisco, Cal., to Manzanillo, Mexico, by steamer, thence by rail to Guadalajara, taking about three weeks. Importers of American shoes here find this route more satisfactory, even when ordering from Boston or St. Louis manufacturers, than overland shipments by way of Laredo. The method of packing that is now used by American manufacturers is approved here.

Sales of American shoes in Guadalajara, Mexico, amount in normal times approximately to $6,000 a month. At present, however, it is difficult to give any correct estimate. The English styles are preferred. Formerly French styles predominated. The prices range from 10 to 30 pesos Mexican silver.

The Mexican duty on shoes is from 1.15 to 1.75 pesos Mexican silver per pair, all over 20 centimeters (7.87 inches) in length being subject to the higher rate.

American shoe manufacturers are requiring full payment in advance from dealers in Guadalajara. Mexican firms object to these terms and find it difficult to meet them. Payment formerly was made 60 days after goods were shipped. Some of the dealers suggest the granting of 60 days in which to make payment, provided they give American manufacturers satisfactory financial references as to the capital invested in their business and any other properties as a guaranty for payment. If some such method could be worked out between American manufacturers and firms here, doubtless it would mean the permanent predominance of American shoes, not only in the city of Guadalajara, but in the large and rich district of which it is the natural commercial center.

NETHERLANDS.

The official reports of the Netherlands do not show the quantities of boots and shoes imported.

In 1908 the official report of imports into that country did not separately enumerate boots and shoes, and it is therefore impossible to give comparative figures for the two years. In 1913, however, such imports were shown under two heads, "Boots and shoes wholly or principally of leather" and "All other boots and shoes, except those of rubber." To the imports of the first class the United Kingdom, Prussia, Belgium, and the United States contributed principally, their respective amounts being $404,187, $146,124, $81,885, and $31,859, or 60.8, 22, 12.3, and 4.8 per cent. Imports of the second class came mainly from the three countries first named, the figures for Prussia being $62,988, or 59 per cent; those of the United Kingdom $22,239, or 20.8 per cent; and those of Belgium $19,275, or 18 per cent of the total imports of this class.

The annual statement of the foreign trade of the Netherlands in 1908 and 1913 gave partly real, partly official, values, supposed to represent the current prices in the Netherlands. Declared values were given for about 110 articles of the import schedule—goods subject to ad valorem duties and some duty-free goods, representing about 10 per cent of the total imports. Textile manufactures and machinery were the principal goods for which declared values were shown. Such declared values were calculated at current prices in the Netherlands, less the import duty. As regards goods to which that provision can not be applied, including such goods as from their nature are of less value to others than to those for whom they are intended, the value is to be fixed at the price of purchase plus the cost of packing, transportation, insurance, and commission.

In all other cases official valuations were applied to both imports and exports. These have remained unchanged since 1847, and consequently do not reflect actual prices. In 1913, for example, wheat was valued at $1.42 a bushel. Most of the wheat exported went to Germany, where the value of wheat imported from the Netherlands was reckoned at $1.06 per bushel. Cinchona bark was valued at $7.30 a pound in the Netherlands, at $0.083 in Germany, and at $0.10 in the United States (1913).

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO THE NETHERLANDS.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908	1913
Saddle makers', trunk makers', and other unspecified leather work:		
Belgium	$117,129	
British possessions in the Straits of Malacca		
Denmark	35	
Dutch Guiana	22	
France		
Hamburg	1,434	
Java and other Dutch East Indies	115	
Norway	17	
Prussia	366,862	
United Kingdom	280,798	
United States	12,062	
Total	778,474	
Boots and shoes wholly or principally of leather:		
Belgium		$81,885
Hamburg		380
Prussia		146,124
United Kingdom		404,187
United States		31,859
Total		664,435
All other boots and shoes, except those of rubber:		
Belgium		19,275
Hamburg		2,338
Prussia		62,988
United Kingdom		22,239
Total		106,840
Grand total	778,474	771,275

MARKET CONDITIONS.

No recent report on the footwear trade in the Netherlands is available in the Bureau, but the following item, contributed to daily Commerce Reports of February 15, 1918, by Consul F. W. Mahan, Amsterdam, may be of interest:

Much complaint is heard of the high prices demanded for new shoes and for repairing old ones in Holland. In defense of the shoemakers, who are often blamed for the high prices, figures are published showing that the cost of leather and other articles composing a shoe was from three to eight times more in December, 1917, than in July, 1914, before the war began. In addition, it is claimed that wages have advanced 40 to 50 per cent in the shoemaking trade and the price of coal 500 per cent during the same interval.

However, the prices of shoes have advanced less than the cost of leather, according to these published figures, but much more than the alleged increase of wages. According to the statement of a large retail dealer, the advance in prices is 175, 250, and 300 per cent in various kinds and qualities, with an average increase of about 200 per cent.

NEW ZEALAND.

The official reports of New Zealand show imports of footwear other than that of rubber under three classes, according to the rate of duty; but as each of these classes embraces so many different styles and sizes as to render a separate showing of each class of no particular value, the quantities of all three classes have been combined in the statistics shown herewith.

In 1908 the total imports amounted to 110,427 dozen pairs, valued at $1,293,083, and in 1913 to 138,635 dozen pairs, value $1,859,825, a gain of 25.5 per cent in quantity and 43.8 per cent in value. This illustrates how little reliance can be placed on values as a comparative index of trade volume. It is fair to assume that the classes of footwear imported into New Zealand did not change greatly between 1908 and 1913, and that there should have been no marked advance in import price, and there is not known to have been any change in the system of import valuation. The United Kingdom almost completely monopolized the trade, its share being 93,757 dozen pairs, value $1,029,873, in 1908, and 130,365 dozen pairs, value $1,771 897, in 1913, a gain of 39 per cent in quantity and 72 per cent in value.

Frontier values (c. i. f. values for imports and f. o. b. values for exports) are shown in the trade reports of New Zealand. The values of imports are declared by the importers, and the declarations are supported by the production of invoices.

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO NEW ZEALAND.

Countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Dozen pairs.	Value.	Dozen pairs.	Value.
Australia:				
New South Wales	1,800	$19,592	52	$993
Victoria	4,193	100,576	112	3,275
Austria-Hungary	714	4,740	498	3,874
British Columbia	735	4,735		
Canada	1,909	18,026	3,459	24,021
China	1	10	32	107
Egypt	2	10		
France	38	297	37	78
Germany	245	2,696	194	1,966
Hongkong	18	112	7	39
Japan	25	15	4	15
Russia		5		
Switzerland	10	180	166	3,659
United Kingdom	93,757	1,029,873	130,365	1,771,897
United States:				
Eastcoast	6,725	104,406	3,585	48,587
Westcoast	255	7,810	124	1,314
Total	110,427	1,293,083	138,635	1,859,825

MARKET CONDITIONS.

An abstract from a report on New Zealand's footwear trade in 1917 is given below:[1]

The local production of boots and shoes is approximately 1,750,000 pairs, and the importation is practically as many more. The imports, of course, include rubber-soled tennis and outing shoes, rubber boots, and the like, but consist mainly of the higher grades of men's and women's ordinary dress shoes and the finer grades of children's shoes.

In volume of business the New Zealand market does not present great attractions, but the business obtainable is well worth cultivating, for the merchants are a most dependable class of careful, conservative shoe dealers, and the people can afford to buy the higher priced footwear and have a favorable opinion of American-made boots and shoes.

There is a marked preference throughout New Zealand for American footwear, and until the preferential tariff went into effect in 1907 it was sold in most of the stores. The preferential tariff discouraged the local dealer's continuing with the American goods and it frightened the American wholesaler out of the market.

There is little question that American footwear could hold a far more important place in the New Zealand market if more sales energy were back of it, for certain English shoes are being sold at fully as high prices as would have to be charged for American goods, grade for grade. Moreover, the strongest bid for patronage a retailer can make is to show in his window shoes marked "Latest American style." True, the description is used with considerable license, but it gets business if the styles are at all attractive and just a bit unusual. No attempt need be made to compete in price with the local product, but $4 wholesale is about the price limit.

In men's shoes the sizes range from 6 to 10 with a few as large as 12 for the Maoris. Half sizes are not usually carried. The widths are not narrower than D and are mostly E, EE, and F. Fully four-fifths of the trade is in boots (high shoes). For some reason, low shoes are not popular among men, and very few rubber-soled shoes are worn. Rubber-heeled shoes, however, are popular, especially those carrying the standard American heels. The leathers most in favor are glazed kid, smooth and boarded bright-finished calf, and patent. Colored leathers are not much in favor among men, and what few colored shoes are sold are made from the light and medium-light tans. Work shoes are made from oil, chrome, and vegetable tanned grain and splits, and most of them have hob-nailed or slugged soles. Standard-screw shoes are especially popular in this class. The chief recommendation for men's shoes seems to be solidity. Glazed-kid uppers frequently carry triple soles with a half-inch extension, and the retailer will usually suggest attaching toe and heel plates or circlets.

[1] From "Shoe and Leather Trade in New Zealand, by C. E. Bosworth, Special Agents Series No. 151, 1917. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price 5 cents.

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The young men of New Zealand seem to have plenty of money to spend and a keen appreciation of American style in dress and footwear. The same styles which find favor among the young men in the United States will appeal to the young men of New Zealand. No special lasts are required. Medium-high toes and heels are now most popular. It makes little difference whether the shoes are welts of McKays so long as a welt shows. The bottoms should be carefully finished on both men's and women's footwear. Velvet bottoms with neat wheeling and a distinctly American trade-mark stamped on the sole attract the local trade. Any of the neater American bottom finishes would be pleasing to the New Zealand trade, so long as the manufacturer remembers that the bottom finish counts for quite as much as the upper finish.

In women's shoes the sizes range from 2 to 7, with the largest demand centered on sizes 4 to 6. The range in widths is from E to EE and F, with a few of the exclusive stores carrying D width, or "fitting." New Zealand women carefully avoid the appearance of having long feet; consequently all shoes are fitted short and wide. In the northern part of North Island turns and low shoes are especially popular. (Turns are usually referred to as "pumps," regardless of the height of the shoe.) In other parts of the Dominion welts and McKays are more popular. Oxfords and single-strap and strapless pumps claim a fair amount of patronage. (Oxfords are referred to as "shoes," pumps as "court shoes," and strap pumps as "bar shoes.") Patent and kid leathers are most popular with the women's trade, although suede, combinations of patent with fancy leathers, and light tan are in fair demand. To a less extent velvets and satins are sold in boots, shoes, and pumps. In summer white buck and white canvas are sold to quite an extent, and at all seasons the "millinery" effects in boots find favor with the more stylishly dressed women. Round-toed lasts are usually most popular, but nearly any style that is genuinely the "latest in America" will find favor with the women of New Zealand.

In children's footwear the demand is for the cheap and medium grades, with a limited sale for the better grades. A boy's shoe in size 13 would be sold once in a while for $3.50, but a similar shoe to sell for $2.50 or even $3 would enjoy a much larger sale. If the upper is of such a quality that the shoe can be resoled twice, the parent is well satisfied. Girls' shoes in some stores run from 25 to 50 cents cheaper, but in most stores the same kind and style of children's shoes are carried for both sexes.

There is little sale for sporting shoes for either sex, the rubber-soled tennis oxfords and bals serving for all outdoor games. There is no market for snow shoes, except direct to the New Zealand Government Tourist Bureau at Wellington for use at the Government hotels in the Southern Alps.

Moccasins for house wear are found here and there in the better stores and are much liked by the purchasers. It is perhaps unfortunate that so many of these made from sheepskin are being sold, but the cost to the retailer is so high that many stores hesitate to handle the hide leather moccasins. This class of footwear, as well as turn comfort shoes, flexible McKays, and the like, will sell much better after the trade has been educated to their merits.

PERU.

The official report for Peru for 1908 does not show imported footwear by countries, and this, coupled with the fact that an extensive change in classification occurred between that year and 1913, renders it impossible to make any analysis of the trade by sources, or to any great extent by totals of the various classes. Peru's total imports of footwear increased from 454,957 pounds, value $253,029, in 1908, to 451,939 pounds, value $322,560, in 1913, a loss of 0.7 per cent in weight, but a gain of 27.5 per cent in value. The only class of marked importance in the importations of 1913 was that covering "Footwear of leather of all classes, for the Army, and with heavy soles with nails or screws, except those for miners or hunters, with or without screws." The imports of this class in that year amounted to 201,939 pounds, value $222,886, or 44.7 per cent of the total imports of footwear and 69.1 per cent of their total value. These importations were shared in principally by the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany. The share of the United States was 92,242 pounds, value $101,812, or 45.7 per cent of the total weight of the class and the same per cent of its value; the United Kingdom, 66,233 pounds, value $73,100, 32.8 per cent in weight and value; Germany, 29,383 pounds, value $32,430, 14.6 per cent in weight and value. The United Kindgom furnished 56.9 per cent of Peru's imports of leather footwear with heavy soles for hunters or miners in 1913 and Spain 78.4 per cent of the total imports of slippers and shoes for the bath, etc.

The values recorded in the annual Estadística del Comercio Especial del Peru are official valuations. Imports are valued according to an official valuation schedule adopted in 1910, which superseded a schedule established in 1901. It is admitted

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that the schedule is antiquated. Heavy leather shoes were valued at 55 cents per pound in 1908, and at 77 cents in 1913, other leather shoes being valued at 98 cents per pound in 1908, and $1.10 in 1913.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO PERU.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Of leather of all classes, for the Army, and with heavy soles, with nails or screws, for miners or hunters (gross weight)	12,284	$6,779	.....	.....
Of leather:				
With heavy soles, for hunters or miners, with or without screws (legal weight)—				
Brazil	.....	.....	315	$243
Chile	.....	.....	254	195
France	.....	.....	13	10
Germany	.....	.....	2,138	1,655
Italy	.....	.....	13	10
Japan	.....	.....	2	.....
Spain	.....	.....	231	180
United Kingdom	.....	.....	19,718	15,232
United States—				
Atlantic coast	.....	.....	10,051	7,767
Pacific coast	.....	.....	1,944	1,504
Total	.....	.....	34,679	26,796
All other (legal weight)—				
Belgium	.....	.....	198	219
Brazil	.....	.....	220	243
Chile	.....	.....	359	399
China	.....	.....	75	83
Ecuador	.....	.....	379	419
France	.....	.....	5,840	6,443
Germany	.....	.....	29,383	32,430
Hongkong	.....	.....	586	647
Italy	.....	.....	403	445
Japan	.....	.....	258	282
Portugal	.....	.....	765	847
Spain	.....	.....	4,998	5,514
United Kingdom	.....	.....	66,233	73,100
United States—				
Atlantic coast	.....	.....	88,208	97,359
Pacific coast	.....	.....	4,034	4,453
Total	.....	.....	201,939	222,886
Of leather, common or fine, and of cotton or woolen fabric, for men, women, or children	210,101	204,062	.....	.....
Of cotton:				
Slippers or shoes for the bath or other uses—				
With soles of esparto, hemp, or jute, with or without pieces of leather (legal weight)—				
Ecuador	.....	.....	7	15
France	.....	.....	9,103	2,258
Germany	.....	.....	4,286	1,061
Italy	.....	.....	412	102
Spain	.....	.....	104,593	25,973
United Kingdom	.....	.....	14,493	3,596
United States—Atlantic coast	.....	.....	430	107
Total	.....	.....	133,323	33,112
Of all other kinds, for men, women, or children (legal weight)—				
Belgium	.....	.....	2	24
China	.....	.....	84	92
France	.....	.....	569	618
Germany	.....	.....	3,049	3,324
Hongkong	.....	.....	15	15
Italy	.....	.....	183	200
Japan	.....	.....	388	423
Portugal	.....	.....	549	599
Spain	.....	.....	4,793	5,236
United Kingdom	.....	.....	1,709	1,864
United States—Atlantic coast	.....	.....	732	798
Total	.....	.....	12,073	13,193

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO PERU—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Of woolen fabric or fur, with soles of hemp or jute:				
Belgium			11	$10
France			1,069	1,168
Germany			1,310	1,431
Hongkong			22	24
Italy			7	5
Japan			22	24
Portugal			3,545	3,874
Spain			62	68
United Kingdom			712	779
United States—				
Atlantic coast			68	73
Pacific coast			20	24
Total	223,507	$39,472	6,848	7,480
Of linen, hemp, jute, and other textile fibers, n. e. s.:				
Slippers, with soles of hemp, esparto, or jute (legal weight)—				
France			12,800	2,823
Germany			761	170
Spain			37,650	8,312
United Kingdom			884	195
United States—Atlantic coast			1,164	258
Total			53,259	11,758
Other for men, women, or children (legal weight)—				
France			730	711
Germany			692	672
Japan			73	68
Spain			24	24
United Kingdom			57	54
United States—Atlantic coast			44	44
Total			1,620	1,573
Of silk:				
In pasteboard boxes	57	156		
With or without pieces of other materials (legal weight)—				
Belgium			2	5
France			11	39
Germany			425	1,270
Hongkong			9	24
Japan			7	19
Spain			15	44
United Kingdom			60	180
United States—Atlantic coast			150	448
Total			679	2,029
Of wood, including roller skates:				
Brazil			123	63
France			545	273
Germany			29	15
Portugal			395	195
United Kingdom			2,588	1,285
United States—Atlantic coast			1,669	827
Total	545	302	5,349	2,658
Of straw:				
China			26	15
Germany			42	19
Hongkong			1,799	895
Japan			295	146
Total	1,764	779	2,162	1,075
In packages	6,700	1,479		
Grand total	454,957	253,029	451,939	322,560

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MARKET CONDITIONS.

Brief extracts from a report on conditions in the boot and shoe trade of Peru are presented below:[1]

In no other Republic of South America are conditions at the present time more favorable to the sale of American boots and shoes than in Peru. Although the total exports of footwear from the United States are not so large as to some of the other Republics, the present volume of trade with Peru is carried on under as satisfactory circumstances from the viewpoint of both exporters and importers as any on the continent.

Modern shoe factories, in the common acceptation of the term, are unknown to-day in the Republic. A well-developed hand-making industry is the chief local competition with which imported shoes have to contend.

In a market in which the domestic production of factory-made shoes is as yet still insignificant, and in which American shoes already occupy the principal place, the extension of trade is concerned chiefly with (1) continuing and making even more mutually satisfactory the existing business relations with Peruvian shoe importers, and (2) securing a larger share of the total footwear consumption of the country by demonstrating the superiority of shoes made in the United States over shoes of local manufacture and those imported from England and the Continent.

So far as building up a permanent future trade with Peru is concerned, the leather and shoe-supply field offers in some ways possibilities equally as attractive as the finished footwear business. Moreover, the market for these lines has not thus far been well developed by American manufacturers.

It is difficult to estimate accurately the consumptive capacity of Peru as regards footwear. Although there are over 4,000,000 inhabitants in the Republic, this figure is very deceptive as a basis on which to calculate the extent of the local market in any line. In the first place, it is estimated that over 50 per cent of the total population are native Indians, 32 per cent half-breeds, 2 per cent Negroes, 1 per cent Chinese, and only 15 per cent are white. The productive capacity of the Indians and many half-breeds in the mining regions, the "montaña," and the narrow coast regions is practically nothing, and their existence has scarcely any effect upon the consumptive capacity of the country. Their wants are few, and clothing and footwear are among the least of their troubles. Even in the larger cities and coast towns there is a considerable Indian and half-breed population, and the great majority of the inhabitants earn little more than a wage that restricts their purchases to actual necessities. The climate in the rainless coast regions and in the ever-wet forests of the eastern montaña section is such that footwear is not essential during any month of the year. Even in the high altitudes in the mining centers, where thousands of Indians are employed, large numbers of natives go barefooted through the deepest snows of winter.

Prices of imported footwear have risen to such an extent that dealers are seriously concerned over the future. In some instances shoes that were classed as medium-grade before the war are to-day costing the importer as much as so-called "calzado fino," or high-grade footwear. Locally manufactured shoes have advanced in price from 10 to 30 per cent during the last 12 months, and imported shoes have shown an increase of from 25 to 50 per cent. There is a large sale in Lima for both men's and women's lines to retail at 16 soles, or approximately $8, and dealers are finding it very difficult to obtain a higher price from customers whose purchasing power is virtually fixed at this outside limit. Price advances in higher-grade shoes have been passed to the consumer with but little trouble.

In both men's and women's lines manufacturers who have adapted their lasts and patterns to fit the peculiar requirements of the Peruvian trade are meeting with the most success. The Peruvian foot has a higher instep than the average American foot, with the result that bal style shoes, especially in high-cuts, are not comfortable if made on standard American lasts. The Blucher style is much more popular for this reason, particularly in high shoes. In both men's and women's shoes wider tops are needed than those of the standard shoe made for use in the United States.

American-made shoes have no serious rivals in the Peruvian trade in men's high-grade shoes, with the exception of shoes made to order by a few custom shoemaking establishments in Lima and Arequipa. This class of footwear is found in a variety of styles and shapes. The largest single market is Lima, the capital. Goodyear welt shoes built on the English last are being used more each year, but the principal demand is still for the American last in all grades of men's shoes. Vici kid in black and tan, patent, and willow calf are the most popular leathers at the present time. A patent vamp, cloth or suede top combination has been popular for a number of months, and

[1] See "Markets for Boots and Shoes in Peru," Special Agents Series No. 152, by Herman G. Brock, 1917. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 15 cents.

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cloth tops can be said to be growing in favor. Dull finish leathers are not liked in any style or for any purpose. Bals have the call over bluchers, especially in high cuts. Button and lace shoes are sold in about equal quantities. In the capital both oxfords and high cuts are used the year round; in Arequipa and the southern sections of Peru oxfords are not worn extensively except during the summer months, November, December, January, and February. Visible eyelets continue to be popular and dealers find it hard to introduce shoes equipped with the invisible kind, although in Lima this is less true than in the rest of the Republic. Light soles are wanted as a rule, but during the rainy months in Arequipa there is a moderate demand for heavy-soled shoes.

Dealers speak of a shoe that retails for $3.50 to $8 as a medium grade product, and the greatest number of men's shoes worn in the country are shoes of this class. They can be divided roughly into two groups, (1) dress shoes, or shoes intended primarily for urban wear, and (2) work shoes, usually heavy and of strong construction, for use in the mining towns and country districts. Styles and shapes that are being sold at present vary widely. Nearly all shoes in both groups are built on an American last and blucher style. Welt shoes and McKay sewed are seen in about equal quantities. In the first group leathers preferred are vici kid (black or colored), patent leather, and patent kid, mostly in black. Box calf is used to a certain extent, but is found more often in shoes of the second group, where heavy oil-grain tan calf and gun metal also are popular. A light to medium sole is needed for sales in Lima; in the mining towns back in the mountains, and to a lesser extent in Arequipa, Puno, and Cuzco, heavy double soles are liked.

Lima offers by far the largest market for the sale of women's high-grade shoes, many families in other towns of the central section of Peru also purchasing their footwear from Lima retailers. Arequipa, although considerably smaller than the capital, is the only other center of any importance in the better class of trade. The influence of French styles is seen in the preference for French or modified French lasts, but in the last year, since it has been absolutely impossible to obtain goods from France, or Austria, American models have come to be more generally accepted.

Blunt toes are everywhere more popular than pointed. Glazed kid is a favorite leather, as is also kid in all colors except white. Black and brown shoes are the best sellers. All-tan goods and all-white goods are not in large demand even in the summer months. Cuban heels are decidedly more popular than Louis heels in both pumps and boots in the Arequipa section, while in Lima and the central section both styles are used in about equal proportion. Eight inches is the approved height for boots during the present season, with a growing call for 9 and 10 inch boots. Dealers report a larger demand for pumps and oxfords than for boots, especially in the capital. According to statements made by leading Lima retailers the introduction of cloth tops has not been enthusiastically received. Silk footwear, principally in party slippers, was introduced into Lima in 1911 and its use has grown, especially during the past year. Habana brown vamps and foxings, with ivory or white tops, have had a good run recently in both turns and welts. In misses' sizes, a patent, one-strap, three-button pump, with full Louis heel, retailing at $8, is another very popular line at present.

The market for women's medium-grade shoes is much larger than for the high-grade product, and American manufacturers are more firmly established in the former field than in the latter. Shoes retailing at $3 to $7 make up the medium-grade lines in Peru, and the largest volume of shoe sales is made between this range of prices. The long French "forme" with narrow forepart was formerly preferred, but dealers state that American lasts with a blunt toe are now well liked. In pumps especially the pointed toe is avoided as much as possible. For everyday wear Cuban heels are liked, but dress shoes invariably are furnished with half Louis or full Louis. 16/8 or 17/8, heels. Patent kid, vici, and box calf are the leathers most frequently seen during the present season. Tan kid is popular during the summer months, but white canvas boots were more in favor this summer than ever before. The majority of medium-grade lines are McKay sewed, and bluchers and balmorals are seen in about equal proportions. The preference seems to be for boots, as against pumps and oxfords (April, 1917), although dealers state that styles which are popular in high-grade goods are followed rather closely in the medium grades. Eight inches is the approved height in boots. Visible eyelets are desired in all parts of the country except in Lima, where the invisible kind is gradually making headway. Cloth tops are much more popular in this grade than in the better grades, grays and blacks predominating. There is a good demand for both button and lace boots.

In Lima and Arequipa dealers carry a fairly complete line of boys' and girls' shoes. Throughout the country the use of children's footwear is very general among that small percentage of the total population which uses shoes. A conservative estimate,

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based on dealers' statements in various sections of the Republic, of the total imports of children's shoes for the 12 months ending December 31, 1916, is $25,000. The market in Peru for infants' and babies' shoes is small, however, and can be fairly estimated. During the 12 months ending December 31, 1916, imports of infants' and babies' shoes were valued roughly at $11,000.

Association football is played rather extensively throughout the Republic, nearly every small town having several teams, and there are a great many amateur, loosely organized leagues of native players. These are principally made up of boys from 14 to 18 years of age, but in the capital there are a great many adult players. Special football shoes are worn in the majority of cases, most of which are native made. There is a growing call, however, for imported football shoes. Tennis has a large following, especially in Lima and its principal suburbs, Miraflores, Barranco, Chorillos, and in Ancon, a watering place about 25 miles north of Callao, which is the week-end center for the foreign colony and many of the better-class native families of the capital. The sale of canvas tennis shoes and "sneakers" is large throughout the central section of the Republic. Slippers are not extensively used in Peru at present.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The imports of boots and shoes of leather into the Philippine Islands increased from 441,151 pairs, value $451,421, in 1908, to 448,073 pairs, value $695,432, in 1913, an advance of 0.9 per cent in quantity and 54 per cent in value. The United States and Spain were the leading countries in these imports, the figures for the former country were 208,837 pairs, value $338,929 in 1908, and 353,699 pairs, value $672,034, in 1913, a gain of 69.4 per cent in quantity and 98.3 in value; figures for Spain were 195,593 pairs, value $86,391, in 1908, and 83,427 pairs, value $17,612, in 1913, a loss of 57.3 per cent in quantity and 79.6 per cent in value. Austria-Hungary and Germany participated in the boot and shoe imports of the Philippine Islands to a small extent in 1908, but the share of the former country dwindled to nothing in 1913, and the figures of the latter decreased from 19,631 pairs in 1908, value $12,624, to 854 pairs in 1913, value $463. In 1913 the share of the United States in the total footwear imports of the Philippines was 78.9 per cent in quantity and 96.6 in value; that of Spain was 18.6 per cent in quantity and 2.5 per cent in value.

Import values in the Philippine statistics represent foreign values; that is, actual market values or wholesale prices of imported merchandise, as bought and sold in the usual wholesale quantities at the time of exportation to the Philippine Islands in the principal markets of the country whence imported, and in the condition in which such merchandise is bought and sold for exportation to the islands or consigned to the islands for sale, including the value of all cartons, cases, and coverings of any kind and all other costs, charges, and expenses incident to placing the goods in condition for shipment to the islands.

Prior to 1910–11 Government supplies were not included in the statistics of imports. All statistics are for fiscal years ending June 30.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pairs.	Value.	Pairs.	Value.
Australasia	80	$123	11	$22
Austria-Hungary	5,450	8,493		
Belgium	480	248	73	118
British East Indies	1,381	644	1,380	814
Canada			6	3
China	3,242	1,890	2,169	1,289
France	993	1,383	138	750
Germany	19,631	12,624	854	463
Hongkong	162	67		
Italy	960	569		
Japan	4,924	3,032	5,881	1,847
Netherlands			10	27
Spain	195,593	86,391	83,427	17,612
Switzerland	967	313	15	6
United Kingdom	1,451	1,715	410	447
United States	208,837	338,929	353,699	672,034
Total	444,151	451,421	448,073	695,432

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Following is a brief outline of conditions in the footwear market of the Philippine Islands: [1]

The Philippines offer for boots and shoes a market of constantly increasing importance. While there are several thousand white people in the islands, their trade is not the most important, for the natives, both men and women, "dress up" in American-style footwear, and those who are financially able have adopted modern footwear for regular wear. The men have a passionate liking for expensive hats and fine footwear and take readily to Western dress. The women cling closely to their native styles of dress, but commonly wear American-style footwear.

American footwear is exceptionally popular, so popular, in fact, that the local shoemakers and manufacturers have always featured the use of American materials in their products.

The natives do not always use good judgment in their purchase of footwear. It is customary for an employee to get from his employer a "chit" or order for shoes, which he presents to a retailer. The price of the shoes or the time it may take to pay off the debt makes little difference to the purchaser so long as he gets shoes to suit his fancy. In the Chinese stores it is a common practice to plead lack of proper size or some other deficiency in stock until the Filipino customer offers a peso ($0.50) or two more than the regular price.

In shoes for ordinary wear the principal demand is for low shoes of medium and light weight. A few high shoes of the same general nature are also required. On account of the custom of wearing white socks, shoes for the islands should be made with either stainless or white linings. In general, the styles are from two to three years behind those in America. The Filipinos are especially partial to high heels and arches, and until recently the "rhino" toes appealed to them strongly, but with the change of style in America they have come to accept the medium high, round toes, although shoes with considerable side swing and toes high on the inside are selling well.

The principal materials demanded are calf, black, boarded; light, bright tan, also boarded; patent leather; some glazed kid in both tan and black; and a great quantity of canvas. The humid climate, which is so destructive to leather, the high prices of leather footwear, and the coolness of canvas have combined to increase the sale of the latter class of footwear out of proportion to the increases in the sale of all other classes. This increasing sale applies to both leather and rubber-fiber soled canvas shoes, and also to tennis shoes. Although far more expensive, tennis shoes have practically supplanted the Spanish alpargatas in the Philippine market. White leather shoes are also in fair demand.

While the men usually show good taste in the selection of their footwear, there is a demand for freak combinations of green leather with white canvas, patent leather in similar combinations, black vamps and white uppers with large black buttons, etc., but these styles are not at all representative of the market.

Sizes run from 4 to 9, in widths C, D, and E. Many of the men are fitted with youths' sizes. A popular price to retailers at the factory is $2.25 in normal times. For a shoe in the same grade they are now paying $3.75. A popular retail price is $4, but the men are now paying from $6 to $8. There are, of course, much cheaper and also much more expensive shoes sold. Some of the finest footwear made in America is sold in both the white and native stores.

The principal demand is for pumps of medium and light construction. Turn pumps are sold but do not dominate the market. Light welts and McKays are far more popular, especially the former. The favorite material is patent leather, with a good demand for black and tan boarded calf, rubber and leather soled canvas pumps; black, white, and some tan kid are also worn. Sizes range from 1½ to 6, in E and EE widths. A few C and D widths are carried in the high-grade stores.

A popular price at the factory of the United States Shoe Co. in Manila in ordinary times is $2.60, now $3.80. Retail prices most popular are $4 and $5 normally, but they now range as high as $10 and $12, though the majority of purchasers prefer shoes at $5 to $6.

There is, of course, some demand for high shoes, white and combination kid and calf, but very little demand for cloth other than canvas. As in men's shoes, the styles are, as a rule, two or three years behind America, but high Louis and Cuban-Louis heels are desired on nearly all women's footwear.

Children who went nearly naked as well as barefoot until a few years ago now wear American shoes. Nature-shape shoes are not much of a factor in the market. Shoes

[1] See "Shoe and Leather Trade in the Philippine Islands," by C. E. Bosworth, Special Agents Series No. 161, 1918. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and the district offices of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 5 cents.

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of ordinary shape and leather and barefoot sandals, with a big demand for tennis shoes, are the chief features of the market. The prices are about the same as for the cheap and medium grades in the United States. The sizes are graded: Boys', 2½ to 6; misses', 11½ to 2; children's, 8½ to 11; infants', 5½ to 8; and babies', 2 to 8.

There is very little demand for specialty and sport shoes. For outdoor games rubber-soled pumps and tennis shoes are nearly always sufficient. Specialty footwear, such as officers' riding boots and the like, are usually made to order.

There are a few, very few, exclusively shoe stores. The great bulk of the shoes reach the consumer through small general stores. Retailers figure their profits at from 35 to 50 per cent.

The window displays of the exclusive white-operated shoe stores are very modern and attractive. The displays of the other stores are a mixture of many things to the capacity of the window. The interiors of the stores are much like the windows. The service is prompt but unskilled. Many lines are usually represented in these small stocks and a complete range of sizes is seldom found in any one line.

Shoe findings of the same general nature as are carried in small stores in America are a part of the shoe department stocks in nearly all the stores selling footwear.

ROUMANIA.

The official trade reports of Roumania show that its imports of boots and shoes other than those of rubber amounted to 105,735 pounds, value $181,787, in 1908, and to 323,694 pounds, value $780,092, in 1913, a gain of 206.14 per cent in quantity and 329.12 per cent in value. Roumania made several changes in its import classification between 1908 and 1913, and its reports show only values for totals of classes and not values by countries. It is practicable, therefore, to analyze the trade by individual classes only, and even then it is advisable to confine the analysis to important classes, as only a few had transactions of any great magnitude. Only three classes merit consideration in this connection, viz, boots and shoes made or cut from leather called "box," those made or cut from kid, and those made or cut from fine leather or skins, etc. Imports of the first of these classes are shown by countries for 1913, but in 1908 such imports were evidently distributed under other heads, just what head it is difficult or impossible to determine.

In 1913 Germany was the leader in "box" boots and shoes, with 74,273 pounds, a percentage of 52.6 out of total imports of 141,209 pounds, value $321,413; Austria-Hungary was the only other country of importance in the class, her percentage being 32.4 of the total. In Roumania's imports of footwear made or cut from kid, Austria-Hungary and Germany were again the leaders. The figures for Austria-Hungary are 35,338 pounds in 1908 and 45,507 pounds in 1913, a gain of 28.78 per cent; those for Germany, 1,845 pounds in 1908 and 34,003 pounds in 1913, a gain of 1,742.98 per cent. The totals for the class are 38,327 pounds, value $83,883, in 1908, and 94,509 pounds, value $206,848, in 1913, a gain of 146.59 per cent in quantity and 146.59 per cent in value. The same two countries lead in the imports of boots and shoes made or cut from fine leather or skins, and the same statement applies to all the minor classes in general. In the class just referred to, Germany's figures in 1908 are 1,371 pounds and in 1913, 37,480 pounds, a gain of 2,633.77 per cent; those of Austria-Hungary, 14,268 pounds in 1908 and 27,313 pounds in 1913, a gain of 91.43 per cent. The total imports of the class were 16,392 pounds, value $35,879, in 1908, and 83,297 pounds, value $182,303, in 1913, a gain of 408.16 per cent in quantity and 408.11 in value.

Foreign-trade values as given in the annual statement of Roumania are official valuations, based on averages determined by a commission appointed from time to time. The valuations are the same for both imports and exports and are established for the various kinds of goods, irrespective of the country of origin.

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Total Imports of Footwear into Roumania.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes made or only cut—				
From leather called "vax"—				
Austria-Hungary	3,322		406	
Bulgaria	7			
Egypt	2			
France	351		137	
Germany	1,012		994	
Italy	381		9	
Netherlands	4		35	
Russia	9		13	
Spain			2	
Switzerland	20		4	
Turkey	22		55	
United Kingdom	580		106	
United States			134	
Total	5,710	$7,498	1,895	$2,490
From leather called "box"—				
Austria-Hungary			45,754	
Belgium			7	
Bulgaria			13	
France			1,530	
Germany			74,273	
Greece			2	
Italy			148	
Netherlands			3,613	
Russia			7	
Spain			57	
Sweden			24	
Switzerland			937	
Turkey			60	
United Kingdom			8,587	
United States			5,981	
Other countries			216	
Total			141,209	321,413
From russia leather—				
Austria-Hungary	15			
Bulgaria	4			
France	2			
Germany	11			
Italy	2			
Russia	26			
Turkey	93			
Total	153	135		
From "spalt"—				
Austria-Hungary	225			
France	13			
Germany	77			
United Kingdom	66			
Total	381	434		
From hides of big cattle—				
Austria-Hungary	5,712		1,850	
Belgium	7		4	
Bulgaria	9			
France	108		115	
Germany	1,182		4,162	
Italy	46		13	
Netherlands			121	
Russia	15		29	
Switzerland	13		37	
Turkey	397		33	
United Kingdom	701		258	
United States			2	
Other countries			2	
Total	8,190	8,604	6,626	6,962

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO ROUMANIA—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes made or only cut—Continued.				
From hides of small cattle—				
Austria-Hungary	6,424		2,853	
Belgium	4		4	
Bulgaria	15		2	
Egypt			2	
France	765		306	
Germany	849		2,374	
Italy	49		2	
Netherlands			725	
Spain	4			
Switzerland	4		75	
Turkey	198		540	
United Kingdom	117		201	
United States			311	
Total	8,429	$12,547	7,395	$11,008
From leather called "blanc," calf skins, horse hide, etc.—				
Austria-Hungary	370			
Bulgaria	7			
France	15			
Germany	22			
Italy	53			
Switzerland	7			
Turkey	95			
United Kingdom	29			
Other countries	11			
Total	609	426		
From "American kid"—				
Austria-Hungary	4,087		1,246	
France	146		46	
Germany	66		721	
Italy	2			
Russia	37			
Turkey	395			
United Kingdom	2		154	
Total	4,735	6,633	2,167	3,036
From kid—				
Austria-Hungary	35,338		45,507	
Belgium	7			
Bulgaria			15	
France	633		5,020	
Germany	1,845		34,003	
Greece	2		2	
Italy	7		77	
Netherlands	2		2,385	
Russia	4			
Spain			66	
Switzerland	13		1,122	
Turkey	117		60	
United Kingdom	348		4,224	
United States			1,933	
Other countries	11		95	
Total	38,327	83,883	94,509	206,848
From fine leather or skins, etc.—				
Austria-Hungary	14,268		27,313	
Belgium	15		13	
Bulgaria	4		9	
France	401		1,929	
Germany	1,371		37,480	
Italy	11		51	
Netherlands	2		2,511	
Russia	9		4	
Spain	2		33	
Switzerland	9		2,366	
Turkey	33		29	
United Kingdom	249		5,329	
United States			6,016	
Other countries	18		214	
Total	16,392	35,879	83,297	182,303

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO ROUMANIA—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes made or ouly cut—Continued.				
Of leather combined with felt, woolen, or cotton cloth, etc., with rubber soles—				
Austria-Hungary	15,895	.....	16,268	.....
Belgium	.....	.....	18	.....
Bulgaria	7	.....	2	.....
France	1,162	.....	3,452	.....
Germany	3,644	.....	8,633	.....
Italy	33	.....	126	.....
Netherlands	.....	.....	44	.....
Russia	51	.....	77	.....
Serbia	2	.....	.....	.....
Spain	.....	.....	2	.....
Switzerland	13	.....	619	.....
Turkey	340	.....	260	.....
United Kingdom	18	.....	1,795	.....
United States	.....	.....	335	.....
Other countries	7	.....	.....	.....
Total	21,172	$22,241	31,631	$33,230
Of various kinds of leather—				
Austria-Hungary	805	.....	93	.....
France	29	.....	88	.....
Germany	117	.....	90	.....
Italy	2	.....	.....	.....
Switzerland	4	.....	.....	.....
Turkey	4	.....	.....	.....
United Kingdom	22	.....	.....	.....
Total	983	1,894	271	522
Of silk combined with leather—				
Austria-Hungary	520	.....	2,665	.....
Bulgaria	2	.....	.....	.....
France	40	.....	463	.....
Germany	20	.....	802	.....
Netherlands	.....	.....	93	.....
Switzerland	.....	.....	476	.....
Turkey	22	.....	22	.....
United Kingdom	2	.....	110	.....
United States	.....	.....	37	.....
Other countries	.....	.....	2	.....
Total	606	1,592	4,670	12,269
Sandals:				
Austria-Hungary	44	.....	20	.....
Bulgaria	4	.....	4	.....
Total	48	21	24	11
Grand total	105,735	181,787	323,694	780,092

RUSSIA.

According to the official Russian reports, the total imports of footwear, under the head of "Leather and skins," amounted to 1,011,545 pounds, value $958,443, in 1908, and 536,128 pounds, value $1,294,498, in 1913, there being a loss of 46.1 per cent in quantity and a gain of 35.1 per cent in value. The reports in question show but two classes of these boots and shoes, viz, "Footwear of every description not elsewhere specified, in finished or partly finished condition," and "Footwear for women, of silk stuff or kid, in finished or partly finished condition." It is not apparent why boots and shoes of silk should be included under the general head of "Leather and skins." In imports of the first class in 1913, Austria-Hungary, Germany, the United States, Denmark, and the United Kingdom were the leading participants. The share of Austria-Hungary rose from 40,555 pounds, value $106,534, in 1908, to 77,895 pounds, value $222,853, in 1913, a gain of 92.07 per cent in quantity and 109.18 per cent in value; Germany's share increased from 275,432 pounds, value $240,707, in 1908, to 312,556 pounds, value $695,172, in 1913, a gain of 13.48 per cent in quantity and 188.8 per cent in value; that of the United States from 1,986 pounds, value $1,579, in 1908,

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to 38,027 pounds, value $85,881, in 1913, a gain of 1,814.75 per cent in quantity and 5,338.95 per cent in value; that of Denmark from 66 pounds, value $34, to 13,290 pounds, value $28,816; that of the United Kingdom from 4,370 pounds, value $8,045, to 16,431 pounds, value $24,089, a gain of 276 per cent in quantity and 199.43 per cent in value. In this connection the fact should be mentioned that China and Japan were prominent in Russia's imports of footwear in 1908, but by 1913 their shares had dwindled almost to insignificance. In 1908 China's share was 429,490 pounds, value $262,177, and in 1913, 12,676 pounds, value $6,899. Japan's share was 186,523 pounds, value $132,914, in 1908, and only 108 pounds, value $185, in 1913. In Russia's imports of women's footwear of silk or kid, Germany and Austria-Hungary were the principal factors. The portion of the former country was 15,529 pounds, value $45,789, in 1908, and 33,368 pounds, value $119,906, in 1913, increase 114.88 per cent in quantity and 161.87 per cent in value; that of the latter country was 41,999 pounds, value $143,541, in 1908, and 16,540 pounds, value $68,412, in 1913, decrease 60.62 per cent in quantity and 52.34 per cent in value.

Foreign-trade values shown in the annual statistical reports of Russia are based on the declarations of importers and exporters. In cases of staples traded in on the produce exchanges the price bulletins of the exchanges are consulted for the purpose of checking the declared values.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO RUSSIA.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes of leather and skins of every description, n. e. s., in finished or partly finished condition:				
Afghanistan		$4		$9
Austria-Hungary	40,555	106,534	77,895	222,853
Belgium		10		12
Bulgaria		3		33
China	429,490	262,177	12,676	6,899
Denmark		34	13,290	28,816
East Indies			36	96
Egypt	108	183	36	57
Finland	181	271	758	1,553
France	2,817	3,892	5,561	14,120
Germany	275,432	240,707	312,556	695,172
Greece		22		9
Italy	36	214		159
Japan	186,523	132,914	108	185
Netherlands		5	108	126
Norway	36	66	722	792
Persia	207	129	36	136
Roumania		19		23
Sweden	144	245	253	944
Switzerland		54	2,275	6,316
Turkey	1,878	2,237	36	154
United Kingdom	4,370	8,045	16,431	24,089
United States	1,986	1,579	38,027	85,881
Other countries	6,645	4,734		
Total	950,408	764,078	480,804	1,088,418
Boots and shoes for women, of silk stuff or kid, in finished or partly finished condition:				
Austria-Hungary	41,999	143,541	16,540	68,412
China	2,167	651	108	480
Denmark		3	1,083	3,805
Finland		14		13
France	506	1,621	758	3,310
Germany	15,529	45,789	33,368	119,906
Greece		8		4
Italy	108	445		186
Japan	72	22		5
Norway			36	101
Persia				3
Roumania		29		14
Sweden		101	217	1,279
Switzerland		55	469	1,313
Turkey	36	251	36	50
United Kingdom	720	1,832	1,156	3,411
United States		3	1,553	3,837
Total	61,137	194,365	55,324	206,080
Grand total	1,011,545	958,443	536,128	1,294,498

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No report is available to the Bureau which treats of recent conditions in the footwear trade of Russia.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

Imports of footwear into the Straits Settlements increased in value from $231,127 in 1908 to $429,145 in 1913, a gain of 85.7 per cent, according to the Government reports of that country. The quantities of such footwear are not stated. Two separate classes are shown, "Boots and shoes of leather" and "Shoes and slippers not of leather." It is impossible to determine whether the latter class includes rubber footwear, as the reports show a separate class for "Rubber goods," which may or may not include rubber boots and shoes. The United Kingdom was a dominating factor in imports of the first class, her share for 1908 being $127,267, or 85.5 per cent, of the total value of the class, and for 1913 $355,500, or 90.4 per cent, of the total value of that year. The entire class increased from $148,880 to $393,291 in value, or 164.2 per cent. Goods of the second class came principally in 1908 from Hongkong, a distributing center whose figures are without significance as indicating origin. In the imports of this class in that year China had a small share, 20.7 per cent. In 1913 her share had increased to 37.8 per cent, but the total imports of the class decreased during the period from $82,247 to $35,854 in value. Imports from Hongkong decreased from $56,224 to $12,377 in value, or 78 per cent.

Difficulty is experienced in ascertaining the exact system in vogue in the Straits Settlements regarding the fixing of import values, but the method is doubtless substantially the same as that of British India, summarized as follows:

The statements of both quantities and values in the Annual Statements of the Sea-Borne Trade of British India are based on the declarations of importers in bills of entry and of exporters in shipping bills, as subsequently checked by customs officials. The values are based on wholesale market prices and represent (*a*) the wholesale cash price, less trade discount, for which goods of the like kind and quality are sold, or are capable of being sold, at the time and place of importation or exportation, without any deduction whatever except of the duty payable on imports; or (*b*) where such price is not ascertainable, the cost at which goods of the like kind and quality could be delivered at such place, without any deduction except of the import duty.

Figures given below include imports into the island of Labuan in 1913 but not in 1908. The latter are unimportant, however. In trade statistics of the Straits Settlements the first port of shipment is accepted as country of origin, and countries which have no seaboard do not appear.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908	1913
Boots and shoes of leather:		
Australia	$54	.....
Austria-Hungary	157	$1,341
Belgium	.....	2,067
British Borneo	45	204
British India	4,571	2,696
Ceylon	.....	50
China	.....	57
Denmark	.....	548
Dutch India	363	77
France	670	2,930
Germany	4,778	2,715
Hongkong	79	6,005
Japan	518	690
Netherlands	14	118
Norway	386	.....
Malay Peninsula	125	1,769
Siam	.....	91
Spain	5,809	2,196
Turkey in Europe	199	.....
United Kingdom	127,267	355,500
United States—		
Atlantic coast	3,845	14,067
Pacific coast	.....	170
Total	148,880	393,291

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908	1913
Shoes and slippers not of leather:		
Austria-Hungary	.....	$199
British India	$57	68
Ceylon	142	85
China	16,986	13,568
Dutch India	1,689	534
France	142	.....
Germany	517	.....
Hongkong	56,224	12,377
Japan	5,281	3,945
Malay Peninsula	5	72
Siam	57	6
United Kingdom	1,147	.....
Total	82,247	35,854
Grand total	231,127	429,145

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MARKET CONDITIONS

The Bureau is not in possession of a complete report on conditions in the footwear market of the Straits Settlements for a recent year, but considerable information on the subject is contained in the following statement by Consul General E. N. Gunsaulus, Singapore, published in daily Commerce Reports of April 11, 1917:

Considerable difficulty has been experienced in Singapore since the outbreak of hostilities on the Continent in keeping up a sufficient stock of shoes to meet the local demand. The great war demand in Europe has led to a shortage in the supplies available for the ordinary markets.

The time has been most opportune for the introduction of American shoes, and, as a result, well-known brands are now carried by each of the three large department stores of Singapore, which are the principal suppliers of boots and shoes in this city. But though the shortage of British goods has perhaps been of advantage to the American trade, the great and sudden increase in prices has had a counteracting influence against a rapid and successful introduction of these brands, comparatively new to this market.

Of the total population of the Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay States of approximately 3,500,000, the European population numbers at present probably not more than 10,000, the majority of the remainder being Chinese, with Malays and Tamils (East Indians) next in order of importance. There is, of course, a regular and steady demand for good shoes on the part of the European population, as is also true of the more wealthy Chinese and Malays, especially in the larger cities of Singapore, Penang, Kuala Lumpur, Ipoh, and Malakka. There is, as well, a fairly large demand in this country on the part of the Chinese and Malays of moderate means for low-priced shoes, irrespective of quality. Merchants of Singapore indicate that they could make good sales of shoes that could be retailed for $2.50 to $4.50 a pair to a fairly large class of the population with whom only a small business can be done at higher prices. Retail prices have increased approximately 25 per cent since the beginning of the war.

The shoes for which there appears the greatest demand is a broad last, tan shoe, both high and low; there is a slightly smaller trade in black of the same style. The European call is for a good grade of this style now selling at $7 for low and $8.25 for high, while there is a strong demand from the Chinese for a similar low black shoe of a cheaper grade ($4.50). American shoes of a similar style are now selling quite well at practically the same prices, although merchants state they are expecting further increases in prices in the near future. The American shoes of these grades are apparently of a slightly lighter weight than the British shoe; and while the former are, perhaps, more comfortable and better fitting, they meet very strong competition from the British shoes of well-known makes that already have a widespread reputation for durability.

In women's footwear the chief call is for canvas low shoes, worn by both Europeans and natives. These sell for $2.50 to $3 a pair and are followed in popularity by leather shoes selling at about $5.50. There are practically no women's shoes of the highest grade in stock in this market, and the introduction of such styles at the present almost prohibitive prices would appear to be most difficult, if not impossible.

Men's canvas shoes are worn by Europeans to some extent, but not so much as might be expected, apparently because of the prevailing idea that the prices of canvas shoes are higher than leather if actual serviceability is taken into account. It is possible, however, that canvas shoes will be more generally worn in the future as the difference in price between the canvas and leather shoe grows greater. Custom or fashion also enters into the matter and is probably the most serious obstacle to overcome in attempting to establish a new line of shoes of this kind. This is especially true in a British community where the heavy but very durable English shoe can not suddenly be displaced by new makes and styles to which the people are not accustomed.

There is a considerable trade in shoes manufactured in Singapore by Chinese and Japanese shoemakers, the latter especially doing excellent work in high-grade shoes made of American leather. One Japanese establishment does especially satisfactory work, and its output is competing at present very successfully with imported shoes of the better grades, its prices being slightly lower than current prices for imported shoes.

There is no store in Singapore that handles shoes exclusively. Moreover, it is doubtful whether such a store could at the present time be established successfully in competition with the shoe sections now operating in the department stores, each of which carries a good line of American as well as British shoes. It might be possible for an American store to operate here successfully after the close of the war, if prices are lower than at present, but such a proposition is at this time highly problematical. It is probable that such a concern could work up a considerable mail-order business in the Malay Peninsula and even in Java, Sumatra, and other islands of the Dutch East

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Indies, although this would necessitate a rather extended campaign of advertising. Singapore is very fortunately located geographically as a distributing point, being within two days' mail service from Penang, Medan, and Batavia and within a week from Bangkok, Hongkong, Manila, Rangoon, Calcutta, Madras, and Colombo; moreover, practically all travelers to or from India and the Orient or the East Indies must pass through Singapore.

High freight rates and uncertain schedules are obstacles to importing from the United States, although the effect on such articles as shoes is not so great as with more bulky articles. It has been suggested in this connection that considerable space could be saved by packing several pairs of shoes in one large carton, rather than the present method of packing in individual boxes, with the resultant waste space. This might, however, render it more difficult for the retailer to handle his stock when making sales, unless separate boxes were sent out in knock-down form, to be used by the merchant in the salesroom. It seems doubtful whether the advantages of such a system would more than equalize the disadvantages.

SWITZERLAND.

Of boots and shoes of leather, Switzerland, according to her official reports, imported 1,930,122 pounds, value $1,523,890, in 1908, and 2,764,563 pounds, value $2,157,890, in 1913, an increase of 43.23 per cent in quantity and 41.6 per cent in value.

In imports of footwear of brown or blackened leather of cow, heifer, or buffalo hide, undressed, unlined, Germany was the only supplier of prominence, her share being 211,421 pounds, value $101,798, in 1908, and 212,744 pounds, value $111,747, in 1913, a gain of 0.63 per cent in quantity and 9.77 in value. In imports of the same class, lined, Germany was again the only country of marked importance, her figures being 44,533 pounds, value $25,340, in 1908, and 42,769 pounds, value $26,209, in 1913, a loss of 3.96 per cent in quantity but a gain of 3.43 per cent in value.

In imports of boots and shoes with uppers of calf, horse, goat, kid, sheep, or fancy leather, lined or not, Germany was again the leader; but France, the United Kingdom, and the United States competed to a considerable extent in 1913, as did also Austria-Hungary and Italy in 1908. Germany's figures were 674,828 pounds, value $738,466, in 1908, and 1,100,977 pounds, value $1,156,610, in 1913, a gain of 63.15 per cent in quantity and 56.62 per cent in value; France, 113,537 pounds, value $109,335, in 1908, and 127,646 pounds, value $134,096, in 1913, a gain of 12.43 per cent in quantity and 22.65 per cent in value; the United Kingdom, 43,651 pounds, value $45,857, in 1908, and 108,907 pounds, value $109,643, in 1913, a gain of 149.49 per cent in quantity and 139.10 per cent in value; United States, 36,155 pounds, value $41,148, in 1908, and 94.577 pounds, value $107,636, in 1913, a gain of 161.59 per cent in quantity and 161.58 per cent in value; Austria-Hungary, 63,933 pounds, value $83,955, in 1908, and 49,383 pounds, value $51,878, in 1913, a loss of 22.74 per cent in quantity and 38.21 per cent in value; Italy, 54,674 pounds, value $71,796, in 1908, and 15,432 pounds, value $16,212, in 1913, a loss of 71.77 per cent in quantity and 77.42 per cent in value. The total imports of the class first considered increased from 1,039,689 pounds, value $1,146,141, in 1908, to 1,552,918 pounds, value $1,632,536, in 1913, a gain of 49.36 per cent in quantity and 42.44 per cent in value.

The imports of footwear of stuffs of all kinds without leather soles were largely attributable to France in 1913, but Germany was a close rival in 1908. The share of France was 68,343 pounds, value $14,958, in 1908, and 103,616 pounds, value $22,677, in 1913, an increase of 51.61 per cent in quantity and 51.60 per cent in value; that of Germany was 23,369 pounds, value $13,298, in 1908, and 14,550 pounds, value $6,369, in 1913, a loss of 37.74 per cent in quantity and 52.11 per cent in value. Again France was in the lead in Switzerland's imports of footwear of felt without leather soles, the total of which amounted to 38,139 pounds, value $20,034, in 1908, and 70,327 pounds, value $36,941, in 1913, a gain of 84.4 per cent in quantity and 84.39 per cent in value. France's share of these totals was 68.21 per cent in quantity and 68.2 per cent in value in 1908, 74.29 per cent in quantity and 74.29 per cent in value in 1913; Germany participated to the extent of 29.49 per cent in quantity and 29.48 per cent in value in 1908, and 25.08 per cent in quantity and 25.08 per cent in value in 1913.

In Switzerland's imports of boots and shoes of canvas, felt, cotton material, lastings, etc., except that of silk velvet or plush, Germany was far in the lead. Total imports under this class increased from 360,893 pounds, value $149,830, in 1908, to 576,283 pounds, value $242,481, an increase of 59.68 per cent in quantity and 61.84 per cent in value. Germany's share in 1908 was 79.41 per cent in quantity and 75.36 per cent in value, and in 1913 was 84.81 per cent in quantity and 83.82 per cent in

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value; France contributed to this class in a limited way in both 1908 and 1913, as did Austria-Hungary also in the former year. Switzerland's imports of footwear of silk, silk velvet, or plush with leather soles or ornamented with leather, of course, were unimportant, being contributed mainly by Austria in 1908 and by the same country and France in 1913. In "All other footwear" Germany led, with France participating to a small degree. The figures of Germany were 101,853 pounds, value $32,429, in 1908 and 135,362 pounds, value $45,968, in 1913, a gain of 32.9 per cent in quantity and 41.75 per cent in value; those of France were 20,723 pounds, value $8,297, in 1908, and 26,014 pounds, value $11,320, in 1913, an increase of 25.53 per cent in quantity and 36.43 in value. The total imports of the class last named amounted to 127,425 pounds, value $43,537, in 1908, and 169,092 pounds, value $60,403, in 1913, a gain of 32.7 per cent in quantity and 38.74 in value.

For methods of computing values in foreign-trade statistics see page 80.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO SWITZERLAND.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes:				
Of brown or blackened leather of cow, heifer, or buffalo hide, of undressed leather—				
Unlined—				
Austria-Hungary	220	$106	----	----
France	661	405	882	$579
Germany	211,421	101,798	212,744	111,747
Italy	1,543	811	882	463
United Kingdom	1,102	579	5,291	2,779
Total	214,947	103,699	219,799	115,568
Lined—				
Austria-Hungary	441	251	220	135
Belgium	661	376	----	----
France	1,102	627	2,205	1,351
Germany	44,533	25,340	42,769	26,209
Italy	2,646	1,505	441	270
United Kingdom	220	125	220	135
United States	220	125	----	----
Total	49,823	28,349	45,855	28,100
With uppers of calf, horse, goat, kid, sheep, or fancy leather, lined or not—				
Austria-Hungary	63,933	83,955	49,383	51,878
Belgium	17,196	18,065	8,377	8,434
France	113,537	109,335	127,646	134,096
Germany	674,828	738,466	1,100,977	1,156,610
Italy	54,674	71,796	15,432	16,212
Netherlands	33,951	35,666	46,517	46,831
Norway	1,764	1,853	220	270
Russia	----	----	882	926
United Kingdom	43,651	45,857	108,907	109,643
United States	36,155	41,148	94,577	107,636
Total	1,039,689	1,146,141	1,552,918	1,632,536
Of stuffs of all kinds, without leather soles—				
Austria-Hungary	661	376	----	----
Belgium	661	174	661	174
France	68,343	14,958	103,616	22,677
Germany	23,369	13,298	14,550	6,369
Italy	1,543	405	220	58
United Kingdom	3,307	1,448	3,968	1,389
Total	97,884	30,659	123,015	30,667
Of felt, without leather soles—				
Austria-Hungary	441	232	441	232
Belgium	441	232	----	----
France	26,014	13,664	52,249	27,445
Germany	11,243	5,906	17,637	9,264
Total	38,139	20,034	70,327	36,941

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TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO SWITZERLAND—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes—Continued.				
Of canvas, felt, cotton material, lashings, velvet or plush (except silk velvet and silk plush), with leather soles or ornamented with leather—				
Austria-Hungary	13,889	$10,639	12,346	$6,485
Belgium	1,102	241	.....	.....
France	54,454	23,836	66,799	29,240
Germany	286,598	112,905	488,760	203,243
Italy	1,764	926	1,323	579
United Kingdom	3,086	1,283	7,055	2,934
Total	360,893	149,830	576,283	242,481
Of silk or of silk velvet or plush, with leather soles or ornamented with leather—				
Austria-Hungary	882	1,081	2,425	4,246
France	.....	.....	1,984	3,474
Germany	220	174	1,764	1,544
Italy	.....	.....	220	386
United Kingdom	220	386	661	1,158
United States	.....	.....	220	386
Total	1,322	1,641	7,274	11,194
All other—				
Austria-Hungary	1,543	1,361	2,866	946
Belgium	.....	9	.....	.....
China	.....	6	.....	.....
France	20,723	8,297	26,014	11,320
Germany	101,853	32,429	135,362	45,968
Italy	3,086	1,140	3,307	1,331
United Kingdom	.....	72	1,102	524
United States	220	223	441	314
Total	127,425	43,537	169,092	60,403
Grand total	1,930,122	1,523,890	2,764,563	2,157,890

MARKET CONDITIONS.

The bureau has no recent report on conditions in the boot and shoe trade of Switzerland, but the following items, the first paragraph being a statement from Commerce Reports of March 8, 1918, by Vice Consul J. C. McNally, Zurich, and the second from that of May 18, 1918, comprising statements by Consul W. P. Kent, Berne, may be of interest:

During November, 1917, a stock company, the Volksschuhzentrale A.-G. of Olten, was formed with a capitalization of 1,000,000 francs ($193,000) and placed under the supervision of the Swiss military department, the purpose of the company being the production of standard shoes. Shoe dealers have been admonished by the Swiss economics department to hold a large number of the more current shoes at as low prices as possible for the supply of the poor people. These shoes are to be distinctly marked as "Volksschuhe," the name that is applied to standard shoes. With regard to the actual volksschuhe, which are being produced by the stock company mentioned, it is hoped that the first 100,000 will be placed on the market soon. The prices of these shoes are comparatively high. The figures for various classes are: Men's shoes, from 29.70 to 36.30 francs ($5.73 to $7); women's shoes, 23.60 to 30.70 francs ($4.55 to $5.93); boys' shoes, 24.70 to 30.30 francs ($4.77 to $5.85); girls' shoes, 15.50 to 23.70 francs ($2.99 to $4.57); children's shoes, 13 francs ($2.50). The shoe dealers are required by law to sell these shoes at the prices named. It is supposed that subsequent deliveries will be at still higher prices because of the increased cost and difficulty in obtaining the raw material, particularly sole leather from the United States. It has been recommended, therefore, that extreme care and economy should be practiced. The soles of standard shoes are all to be protected by means of plates, etc., and it is possible that subsequently similar methods of protection will be made compulsory for all shoes.

Switzerland, since the war, has become an exporter of shoes. In 1916 $7,000,000 worth of shoes were exported to France, England, Austria, Germany, and Italy, in the order named. American shoes were imported before the war by the large shoe shops and department stores and sold by them directly. They were bought outright and re-

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tailed at a price slightly less than the price of the Swiss shoes. The dealer's profits ranged from 30 to 50 per cent. The war has brought the import of American and other foreign shoes to a standstill, but, owing to the scarcity of leather and the consequent shortage of shoes, dealers wish to import manufactured shoes from abroad, and for this reason turn to America. A large number of the Swiss people prefer American shoes to the heavy Swiss product. The most important shoe factory in Switzerland, producing half of the entire Swiss output, is "Bally & Co. (Ltd.), Schönenwerd," with a daily output of 40,000 pairs of shoes. The Swiss shoe industry dates as far back as 1847, and employs to-day about 12,000 workmen. The imports annually amount to about $1,000,000 in normal times. The Swiss economical department is endeavoring to reduce the consumption of shoes and leather by having hobnails in all shoes and thus save the soles. A shoe for general use, called the people's shoe, selling for $6 a pair, will be sold shortly.

UNITED KINGDOM.

During the period with which this pamphlet is concerned, the imports of boots and shoes into the United Kingdom increased from 245,928 dozen pairs, value $3,745,643, to 365,950 dozen pairs, value $4,535,734, the gain being 48.8 per cent in quantity and 21.1 in value. The official reports of imports into that country show but two classes, "Boots and shoes of which leather is the chief value," and "Boots and shoes of other materials, except rubber." In the first class the United States, Austria-Hungary, France, Switzerland, and Germany were the principal sharers in 1908. From that year to 1913 the share of the United States increased from 69,743 dozen pairs, value $1,758,588, to 73,004 dozen pairs, value $1,715,427, a gain of 4.7 per cent in quantity and a loss of 2.5 per cent in value; Austria-Hungary, from 36,043 dozen pairs, value $569,010, to 24,691 dozen pairs, value $382,166, a loss of 31.5 per cent in quantity and 32.8 in value; France, from 19,308 dozen pairs, value $453,223, to 25,352 dozen pairs, value $550,406, a gain of 31.3 in quantity and 21.4 per cent in value; Switzerland, from 28,774 dozen pairs, value $418,275, to 60,178 dozen pairs, value $935,166, a gain of 109.1 in quantity and 123.6 in value; Germany, from 16,545 dozen pairs, value $217,596, to 32,947 dozen pairs, value $372,394, a gain of 99.1 per cent in quantity and 71.1 in value. In the second class France and Germany were the only participants of special importance. In this class the share of France increased from 48,141 dozen pairs, value $165,100, to 82,994 dozen pairs, value $227,586, a gain of 72.4 per cent in quantity and 37.8 per cent in value; Germany, from 16,733 dozen pairs, value $78,423, to 41,203 dozen pairs, value $173,330, a gain of 146.2 per cent in quantity.

For methods of computing values in foreign-trade statistics see page 86.

TOTAL IMPORTS OF FOOTWEAR INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Classes of footwear and countries whence imported.	1908		1913	
	Dozen pairs.	Value.	Dozen pairs.	Value.
Boots and shoes of leather or of which leather is the chief value:				
Austria-Hungary	36,043	$569,010	24,691	$382,166
Belgium	1,658	18,805	4,600	60,072
British possessions	160	920	615	3,883
France	19,308	453,223	25,352	550,406
Germany	16,545	217,596	32,947	372,394
Netherlands	2,166	22,843	3,897	54,286
Switzerland	28,774	418,275	60,178	935,166
United States	69,743	1,758,588	73,004	1,715,427
Other foreign countries	1,056	12,516	900	9,841
Total	175,453	3,471,776	226,184	4,083,641
Boots and shoes of other materials, except rubber:				
Austria-Hungary	2,318	10,361	375	2,779
British possessions	183	1,767	133	623
France	48,141	165,100	82,994	227,586
Germany	16,733	78,423	41,203	173,330
Netherlands	1,066	6,283	1,846	8,853
Norway	761	6,181	2,529	8,648
Other foreign countries	1,273	5,752	10,686	30,274
Total	70,475	273,867	139,766	452,093
Grand total	245,928	3,745,643	365,950	4,535,734

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EXPORTS OF BOOTS AND SHOES OF DOMESTIC MANUFACTURE FROM SPECIFIED COUNTRIES.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

The total exports of boots and shoes from Austria-Hungary amounted to 3,546,760 pounds, value $3,984,070, in 1908, and to 3,947,336 pounds, value $5,054,572, in 1913, a gain of 11.29 per cent in quantity and 26.87 per cent in value.

The values of both imports and exports, as given in the annual statement of the foreign trade of Austria-Hungary, represent the values of the goods at the frontier. In the case of imports, the values include cost, insurance, and freight to the Austro-Hungarian frontier, but do not include import duty or freight within the monarchy. Export values include cost and freight to the frontier. The values of both imports and exports are estimated annually (for a few articles, monthly) by the Permanent Commission for Trade Values, consisting of representatives of the Ministries of Finance, Commerce, and Agriculture, the Central Statistical Commission, and eminent agriculturists, manufacturers, and merchants. The estimates represent an average value for the year, due regard being paid to the quality and origin of the goods.

ANALYSIS OF EXPORTS TO LEADING COUNTRIES—FOOTWEAR OF ALL KINDS.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.	
	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina	3,086	$3,496	0.09	0.09	13,228	$16,930	0.34	0.33
Belgium	94,136	106,618	2.65	2.68	29,983	38,375	.76	.76
British India	35,935	40,699	1.01	1.02	29,762	38,093	.75	.75
Bulgaria	31,085	35,206	.88	.88	54,454	69,696	1.38	1.38
China	4,409	4,994	.12	.13	22,928	29,346	.58	.58
Denmark	157,188	178,029	4.43	4.47	94,358	120,769	2.39	2.39
Egypt	143,299	167,577	4.04	4.21	146,385	192,752	3.71	3.81
France	74,736	84,645	2.11	2.12	35,715	45,711	.90	.90
Germany	1,428,582	1,549,523	40.28	38.89	917,114	1,116,112	23.23	22.08
Greece	3,968	4,494	.11	.11	20,282	25,960	.51	.51
Italy	141,095	159,802	3.98	4.01	245,372	314,055	6.22	6.21
Netherlands	28,219	31,960	.80	.80	59,524	76,186	1.51	1.51
Norway	25,794	29,214	.73	.73	25,353	32,916	.64	.65
Roumania	154,983	181,240	4.37	4.55	232,144	305,675	5.88	6.05
Russia:								
European	225,752	255,683	6.37	6.42	207,453	263,612	5.26	5.22
Asiatic					36,376	46,558	.92	.92
Serbia	29,762	34,804	.84	.87	562,393	740,530	14.25	14.65
Sweden	14,330	16,230	.40	.41	21,164	27,088	.54	.54
Switzerland	126,985	135,636	3.58	3.40	83,775	101,053	2.12	2.00
Turkey:								
European	83,113	94,133	2.34	2.36	34,392	44,019	.87	.87
Asiatic	14,771	16,729	.42	.42	35,053	44,865	.89	.89
United Kingdom	686,953	809,661	19.37	20.32	895,729	1,179,448	22.69	23.33
United States	2,866	3,246	.08	.08	85,097	108,918	2.16	2.15

PER CENT OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−) 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Argentina	+328.65	+384.27	Norway	− 1.71	+ 12.67
Belgium	− 68.15	− 64.01	Roumania	+ 49.79	+ 68.66
British India	− 17.21	− 6.04	Russia: European	− 8.11	+ 3.10
Bulgaria	+ 75.18	+ 97.97	Serbia	+1,789.63	+2,027.72
China	+420.03	+487.62	Sweden	+ 47.69	+ 66.90
Denmark	− 39.97	− 47.41	Switzerland	− 34.03	− 25.50
Egypt	+ 2.15	+ 15.02	Turkey:		
France	− 52.21	− 46.00	European	− 58.62	− 53.24
Germany	− 35.80	− 27.97	Asiatic	+ 137.31	+ 168.19
Greece	+411.14	+477.66	United Kingdom	+ 30.39	+ 45.67
Italy	+ 73.91	+ 96.53	United States	+2,869.19	+3,255.45
Netherlands	+110.94	+138.38			

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TOTAL EXPORTS OF FOOTWEAR FROM AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes of all kinds, with or without leather, combined or not with textile materials:				
Africa, not elsewhere specified	220	$250		
Algeria	441	499		
America, not elsewhere specified	2,205	2,497	5,291	$6,772
Argentina	3,086	3,496	13,228	16,930
Asia, not elsewhere specified	7,055	7,990	220	282
Australia, not elsewhere specified	1,102	1,248	1,323	1,693
Belgium	94,136	106,618	29,983	38,375
Brazil	1,102	1,248	4,409	5,644
British Australia	661	749	8,598	11,005
British India	35,935	40,699	29,762	38,093
British possessions in Africa	7,937	8,989	5,071	6,490
British possessions in Mediterranean	1,543	1,748	661	847
Bulgaria	31,085	35,206	54,454	69,696
Central America			1,984	2,539
Chile			5,953	7,619
China	4,409	4,994	22,928	29,346
Colombia	441	499	1,984	2,539
Denmark	157,188	178,029	94,358	120,769
Dutch India			220	282
Egypt	143,299	167,577	146,385	192,752
France	74,736	84,645	35,715	45,711
Germany	1,428,582	1,549,523	917,114	1,116,112
German possessions in Africa	220	250		
Greece	3,968	4,494	20,282	25,960
Italy	141,095	159,802	245,372	314,055
Japan	882	999		
Mexico	1,543	1,748	661	847
Montenegro	2,866	3,246	9,039	11,569
Morocco			661	847
Netherlands	28,219	31,960	59,524	76,186
New Zealand			220	282
Norway	25,794	29,214	25,353	32,916
Persia	1,984	2,247	10,582	13,544
Peru	1,543	1,748	1,323	1,693
Roumania	154,983	181,240	232,144	305,675
Russia—				
European	225,752	255,683	207,453	263,612
Asiatic			36,376	46,558
Serbia	29,762	34,804	562,393	740,530
Spain	1,323	1,498	882	1,129
Sweden	14,330	16,230	21,164	27,088
Switzerland	126,985	135,636	83,775	101,053
Tripoli	220	250	220	282
Tunis	882	999		
Turkey—				
European	83,113	94,133	34,392	44,019
Asiatic	14,771	16,729	35,053	44,865
United Kingdom	686,953	809,661	895,729	1,179,448
United States	2,866	3,246	85,097	108,918
All other countries	1,543	1,749		
Total	3,546,760	3,984,070	3,947,336	5,054,572

FRANCE.

According to the French official reports, its total exports of boots and shoes increased from 3,282,442 pounds, value $2,340,918, in 1908, to 3,345,700 pounds, value, $2,735,512, in 1913, a gain of 1.92 per cent in quantity and 16.86 per cent in value. In those reports values are not shown by countries, but the total average value per unit of quantity may be applied to the quantities for the various countries, if desired.

Since 1847 the official valuations of the foreign trade of France have been calculated annually by a commission of the Department of Commerce and Industry, assisted by the chambers of commerce. These official valuations represent frontier values and do not include import duties, excise taxes, and discounts. General averages are determined, applying to all countries of origin or destination without distinction.

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Analysis of Exports to Leading Countries.

FOOTWEAR OF ALL KINDS.

Countries to which exported.	1908		1913		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) 1908–1913.
	Footwear exported.	Per cent of total of the class.	Footwear exported.	Per cent of total of the class.	
	Pounds.		*Pounds.*		
Africa, West Coast	.....	.....	13,228	.....	.....
Algeria	912,081	28	681,882	20	− 25
Argentina	5,624	.....	35,935	1	+ 539
Australia	.....	.....	1,102	.....	.....
Belgium	853,228	26	845,244	25	− 1
British possessions in Africa	.....	.....	18,739	1	.....
Chile	40,389	1	26,235	1	− 35
Colombia	26,878	1	17,857	1	− 34
Egypt	25,415	1	37,919	1	+ 49
French West Africa	.....	.....	28,439	1	.....
French Guiana	56,497	2	69,224	2	+ 23
French Indo-China	41,034	1	33,069	1	− 19
French zones	94,533	3	96,341	3	+ 2
Germany	85,055	3	102,073	3	+ 20
Guadaloupe	34,449	1	57,981	2	+ 68
Italy	3,197	.....	83,334	2	+2,507
Madagascar	30,102	1	60,626	2	+ 101
Martinique	29,956	1	26,896	1	− 10
Morocco	.....	.....	50,706	2	.....
New Caledonia	.....	.....	53,572	2	.....
Senegal	51,222	2	143,740	4	+ 180
Spain	.....	.....	5,952	.....	.....
Switzerland	144,441	4	158,292	5	+ 10
Tunis	63,777	2	44,533	1	− 30
Turkey	11,545	.....	16,975	1	+ 47
United Kingdom	482,044	15	424,385	13	− 12

FOOTWEAR OF LEATHER.

Africa, West Coast	.....	.....	13,228	1	.....
Algeria	863,209	44	546,961	27	− 42
Argentina	5,624	.....	19,841	1	+ 270
Australia	.....	.....	1,102	.....	.....
Belgium	205,302	10	242,065	12	+ 18
British possessions in Africa	.....	.....	18,739	1	.....
Chile	7,981	.....	6,614	.....	− 17
Colombia	26,878	1	17,857	1	− 34
Egypt	25,415	1	37,919	2	+ 49
French West Africa	.....	.....	28,439	1	.....
French Guiana	41,726	2	55,115	3	+ 32
French Indo-China	41,034	2	33,069	2	− 19
French zones	94,553	5	81,570	4	− 14
Germany	39,050	2	56,438	3	+ 45
Guadaloupe	34,449	2	57,981	3	+ 68
Italy	3,197	.....	83,334	4	+2,507
Madagascar	29,478	2	60,626	3	+ 106
Martinique	29,956	2	26,896	1	− 10
Morocco	.....	.....	50,706	3	.....
New Caledonia	.....	.....	53,572	3	.....
Senegal	46,632	2	134,040	7	+ 187
Switzerland	72,483	4	72,312	4	.....
Tunis	51,431	3	44,533	2	− 13
Turkey	11,545	1	16,975	1	+ 47
United Kingdom	161,579	8	110,671	6	− 32

FOOTWEAR OF LIST: SLIPPERS.

Algeria	5,441	0.98	14,550	1.89	+167.41
Argentina	.....	.....	16,094	2.09	.....
Belgium	120,806	21.68	306,660	39.75	+153.85
Germany	23,739	4.26	26,455	3.43	+ 11.44
Switzerland	71,958	12.91	76,069	9.86	+ 5.70
United Kingdom	294,671	52.88	291,448	37.78	− 1.09

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Analysis of Exports to Leading Countries—Continued.

FOOTWEAR OF WOOD.

Countries to which exported.	1908		1913		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) 1908–1913.
	Footwear exported.	Per cent of total of the class.	Footwear exported.	Per cent of total of the class.	
	Pounds.		*Pounds.*		
Algeria	43,431	5.66	120,371	21.09	+177.15
Belgium	527,120	68.69	296,519	51.95	− 43.75
Chile	32,408	4.22	19,621	3.44	− 39.46
French Guiana	14,771	1.92	14,109	2.47	− 4.48
French zones			14,771	2.59	
Germany	22,266	2.90	19,180	3.36	− 13.86
United Kingdom	25,794	3.36	22,266	3.90	− 13.68

Total Exports of Footwear from France.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Footwear of leather:				
Africa, West Coast			13,228	
Algeria	863,209		546,961	
Argentina	5,624		19,841	
Australia	205,302		1,102	
Belgium			242,065	
British possessions in Africa			18,739	
Chile	7,981		6,614	
Colombia	26,878		17,857	
Egypt	25,415		37,919	
French Guiana	41,726		55,115	
French Indo-China	41,034		33,069	
French West Africa			28,439	
French zones	94,533		81,570	
Germany	39,050		56,438	
Guadaloupe	34,449		57,981	
Italy	3,197		83,334	
Madagascar	29,478		60,626	
Martinique	29,956		26,896	
Morocco			50,706	
New Caledonia			53,572	
Senegal	46,632		134,040	
Switzerland	72,483		72,312	
Tunis	51,431		44,533	
Turkey	11,545		16,975	
United Kingdom	161,579		110,671	
All other countries	166,251		132,937	
Total	1,957,753	$2,056,680	2,003,540	$2,367,878
Footwear of list: Slippers—				
Algeria	5,441		14,550	
Argentina			16,094	
Belgium	120,806		306,660	
Germany	23,739		26,455	
Madagascar	624			
St. Pierre, etc	443		3,307	
Senegal	4,590		9,700	
Spain			5,952	
Switzerland	71,958		76,059	
United Kingdom	294,671		291,448	
All other countries	34,996		21,164	
Total	557,268	243,928	771,389	337,654
Footwear of wood:				
Algeria	43,431		120,371	
Belgium	527,120		296,519	
Chile	32,408		19,621	
French Guiana	14,771		14,109	
French zones			14,771	
Germany	22,266		19,180	
St. Pierre, etc	13,007		7,937	
Switzerland			9,921	
Tunis	12,340			
United Kingdom	25,794		22,266	
All other countries	76,278		46,076	
Total	767,421	40,310	570,771	29,981
Grand total	3,282,442	2,340,918	3,345,700	2,735,512

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GERMANY.

The total exports of footwear of leather from Germany, according to her official reports, increased from 2,906,765 pounds, value, $3,647,826 in 1908, to 7,376,150 pounds, value, $7,005,054 in 1913, an increase of 153.76 per cent in quantity and 92.03 per cent in value.

Frontier values are shown in the annual statement of German trade. Until the end of April, 1909, the values were based largely on estimates prepared by the Advisory Board for Commercial Statistics in annual sessions. Declarations of value were prescribed for only a small percentage of the goods classified—18 statistical numbers of the imports and 144 items of the exports. Beginning with May 1, 1909, declaration of value became obligatory for 32 items of imports and 1,336 items of exports. Since April 1, 1911, declarations of value have been required for all exports and for 60 numbers of the import schedule, including tobacco and its manufactures, skins for furriers' work, furriers' wares, vehicles, and watches and clocks. The values of other imports are still calculated on the basis of official valuations established generally for certain kinds of goods or separately for each country of origin. The declarations also are checked by the Advisory Board. The averages for 1913 were established at a series of meetings of the board held in January and February, 1914. One hundred and twenty-eight agriculturists, manufacturers, merchants, and other experts took part in the meetings.

ANALYSIS OF EXPORTS TO LEADING COUNTRIES—FOOTWEAR OF ALL KINDS.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.	
	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina					63,052	$70,448	0.85	1.01
Austria-Hungary	171,078	$246,092	5.89	6.75	2,289,698	2,543,268	31.04	36.31
Belgium	44,974	78,778	1.55	2.16	79,365	81,634	1.08	1.17
Bulgaria					28,880	21,658	.39	.31
Chile					33,951	41,888	.46	.60
Denmark	445,990	733,516	15.34	20.11	514,995	542,878	6.98	7.75
Egypt	24,912	40,222	.86	1.10	78,704	96,390	1.07	1.38
Finland	282,189	465,528	9.71	12.76	164,904	203,252	2.24	2.90
France	122,574	153,272	4.22	4.20	413,583	405,552	5.61	5.79
German East Africa					22,266	22,134	.30	.32
German Southwest Africa	107,364	134,946	3.69	3.70	171,518	146,132	2.33	2.09
Italy					127,867	186,592	1.73	2.66
Kamerun	9,921	14,994	.34	.41	30,644	29,988	.42	.43
Netherlands	137,787	185,164	4.74	5.08	189,154	98,770	2.56	1.41
Norway	10,803	16,422	.37	.45	83,775	98,532	1.14	1.41
Persia					78,043	71,638	1.06	1.02
Roumania					127,867	162,316	1.73	2.32
Russia	64,815	100,912	2.23	2.77	242,506	376,516	3.29	5.37
Serbia					64,815	49,028	.88	.70
Switzerland	781,090	1,003,408	26.87	27.51	1,369,718	1,269,968	18.57	18.13
Turkey					72,090	64,498	.98	.92
United Kingdom	468,919	238,714	16.13	6.54	786,602	202,776	10.66	2.89

PER CENT OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Austria-Hungary	+1,238.39	+933.46	Kamerun	+208.88	+100.00
Belgium	+ 76.47	+ 3.63	Netherlands	+ 37.28	− 46.66
Denmark	+ 15.47	− 25.99	Norway	+675.48	+500.00
Egypt	+ 215.93	+139.64	Russia	+274.15	+273.11
Finland	− 41.56	− 56.33	Switzerland	+ 75.36	+ 26.57
France	+ 237.41	+164.60	United Kingdom	+ 67.75	+ 15.05
German Southwest Africa	+ 59.75	+ 8.29			

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Analysis of Exports to Leading Countries—Footwear of Leather with Soles Other than Wood.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.	
	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina					63,052	$70,448	0.98	1.04
Austria-Hungary	171,078	$246,092	7.09	7.18	2,289,698	2,543,268	35.66	37.37
Bulgaria					28,880	21,658	.45	.32
Chile					33,951	41,888	.53	.62
Denmark	445,990	733,516	18.49	21.40	514,995	542,878	8.02	7.98
Egypt	24,912	40,222	1.03	1.17	78,704	96,390	1.23	1.42
Finland	282,189	465,528	11.70	13.58	164,904	203,252	2.57	2.99
France	122,574	153,272	5.08	4.47	413,583	405,552	6.44	5.96
German East Africa					22,266	22,134	.34	.33
German Southwest Africa	107,364	134,946	4.45	3.94	171,518	146,132	2.67	2.15
Italy					127,867	186,592	1.99	2.74
Kamerun	9,921	14,994	.41	.44	30,644	29,988	.48	.44
Netherlands	104,939	172,788	4.35	5.04	113,757	86,394	1.77	1.27
Norway	10,803	16,422	.45	.48	83,775	98,532	1.30	1.45
Persia					78,043	71,638	1.22	1.05
Roumania					127,867	162,316	1.99	2.39
Russia	64,815	100,912	2.69	2.94	242,506	376,516	3.78	5.53
Serbia					64,815	49,028	1.01	.72
Switzerland	768,524	991,270	31.86	28.91	1,335,106	1,248,786	20.79	18.35
Turkey					72,090	64,498	1.12	.95
United Kingdom	95,239	88,298	3.95	2.58	106,703	79,016	1.66	1.16

PER CENT INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Austria-Hungary	+1,238.39	+933.46	Kamerun	+208.88	+100.00
Denmark	+ 15.47	− 25.99	Netherlands	+ 8.40	− 50.00
Egypt	+ 215.93	+139.64	Norway	+675.48	+500.00
Finland	− 41.56	− 56.34	Russia	+274.15	+273.11
France	+ 237.41	+164.60	Switzerland	+ 73.72	+ 25.96
German Southwest Africa	+ 59.75	+ 8.29	United Kingdom	+ 12.04	− 10.51

Analysis of Exports to Leading Countries—Footwear of Leather with Soles of Wood.[1]

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.	
	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Netherlands	32,848	$12,376	7.46	7.44	75,397	$12,376	8.44	7.66
United Kingdom	358,248	135,422	81.41	81.40	679,899	123,760	76.15	76.58

ANALYSIS OF EXPORTS TO LEADING COUNTRIES—SLIPPERS AND HOUSE SHOES.

Switzerland	12,566	$12,138	22.98	22.87	34,612	$21,182	55.48	55.28
United Kingdom	15,432	14,994	28.23	28.25	.....	.....	.....	.....

[1] For this class of footwear, during the period 1908 to 1913, there was increase of 129.53 per cent in quantity and no change in value of exports to Netherlands; in exports to the United Kingdom there was increase of 89.78 per cent in quantity and a decrease of 8.61 per cent in value.

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Total Exports of Footwear from Germany.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.[1]	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Footwear of leather:				
With soles of wood—				
Netherlands	32,848	$12,376	75,397	$12,376
United Kingdom	358,248	135,422	679,899	123,760
All other countries	48,942	18,564	137,567	25,466
Total	440,038	166,362	892,863	161,602
With other soles—				
Argentina			63,052	70,448
Austria-Hungary			2,289,698	2,543,268
Belgium			79,365	81,634
Bolivia			16,314	16,898
Bulgaria			28,880	21,658
Chile			33,951	41,888
China			13,448	14,280
Denmark			514,995	542,878
Egypt			78,704	96,390
Finland			164,904	203,252
France			413,583	405,552
German East Africa			22,266	22,134
German Southwest Africa			171,518	146,132
Italy			127,867	186,592
Kamerun			30,644	29,988
Netherlands			113,757	86,394
Norway			83,775	98,532
Persia			78,043	71,638
Peru			9,700	12,376
Roumania			127,867	162,316
Russia			242,506	376,516
Serbia			64,815	49,028
Sweden			13,007	14,042
Switzerland			1,335,106	1,248,786
Turkey			72,090	64,498
United Kingdom			106,703	79,016
All other countries			124,339	119,000
Total			6,420,897	6,805,134
Weighing more than 1,200 grams (2.65 lbs.) per pair—				
Austria-Hungary	23,810	15,470		
France	42,768	27,608		
German Southwest Africa	34,833	22,610		
Switzerland	231,263	149,702		
United Kingdom	67,240	43,554		
All other countries	65,036	42,126		
Total	464,950	301,070		
Weighing more than 600 and up to 1,200 grams (2.65 lbs.) per pair; also boot-uppers of leather of all kinds with elastics without regard to weight—				
Austria-Hungary	122,576	185,402		
Belgium	12,346	18,802		
Denmark	262,347	396,508		
Egypt	17,196	25,942		
Finland	161,818	244,664		
France	63,933	96,628		
German Southwest Africa	63,933	96,628		
Kamerun	9,921	14,994		
Netherlands	61,949	93,772		
Norway	10,803	16,422		
Russia—				
European	14,550	22,134		
Asiatic	42,108	63,784		
Switzerland	445,991	674,016		
United Kingdom	20,503	30,940		
All other countries	67,460	101,150		
Total	1,377,434	2,081,786		

[1] Small amounts of footwear of cotton, silk, wool, etc., are not included.

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TOTAL EXPORTS OF FOOTWEAR FROM GERMANY—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.[1]	1908		1913	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Footwear of leather—Continued.				
With other soles—Continued.				
Weighing 600 grams (1.32 lbs.) per pair—				
Austria-Hungary	24,692	$45,220	.....	.....
Belgium	32,628	59,976	.....	.....
Denmark	183,643	337,008	.....	.....
Egypt	7,716	14,280	.....	.....
Finland	120,371	220,864	.....	.....
France	15,873	29,036	.....	.....
German Southwest Africa	8,598	15,708	.....	.....
Netherlands	42,990	79,016	.....	.....
Russia, Asiatic	8,157	14,994	.....	.....
Switzerland	91,270	167,552	.....	.....
United Kingdom	7,496	13,804	.....	.....
All other countries	26,235	48,076	.....	.....
Total	569,669	1,045,534	.....	.....
Slippers and house shoes—				
Switzerland	12,566	12,138	34,612	$21,182
United Kingdom	15,432	14,994	.....	.....
All other countries	26,676	25,942	27,778	17,136
Total	54,674	53,074	62,390	38,318
Grand total	2,906,765	3,647,826	7,376,150	7,005,064

SWITZERLAND.

In 1908 Switzerland's total exports of boots and shoes amounted to 1,209.003 pounds valued at $1,545,256, and in 1913 to 2,350,104 pounds valued at $35, 999, 877, an increase of 94.38 per cent in quantity and 2,229.7 per cent in value.

The values shown in the annual statement of Switzerland are frontier values, including, in the case of imports, cost, insurance, and freight to the Swiss frontier, but not the duty, and in the case of exports, wholesale price at the place of shipment plus transportation charges to the frontier. The export values are all declared values. By an order of the Federal Council, in effect November 1, 1916, declarations of value have been made obligatory for all imports also. Heretofore the values of a large majority of the imported goods have been calculated on the basis of averages established annually by a valuation commission appointed by the Department of Customs, the valuations being determined for each country of origin separately. Declarations of value have been required only for certain articles of which valuation would have been difficult, such as objects of art, instruments and apparatus, jewelry, silk and silk goods, and vehicles.

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ANALYSIS OF EXPORTS TO LEADING COUNTRIES—FOOTWEAR OF ALL KINDS.

Countries to which exported.	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.	
	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina	80,689	$113,678	6.67	7.36	227,294	$325,570	9.67	0.90
Australian Commonwealth	11,684	12,394	.97	.80	70,768	94,177	3.01	.26
Austria-Hungary	7,936	13,612	.66	.88	124,999	228,513	5.32	.63
Belgium	661	1,061	.05	.07	26,676	46,109	1.14	.13
Canada	442	1,237	.04	.08	6,173	11,756	.26	.03
Chile	19,841	38,746	1.64	2.51	19,401	39,147	.83	.11
Denmark	3,527	2,686	.29	.17	24,030	27,505	1.02	.08
Egypt	216,932	239,377	17.94	15.49	86,361	109,019	3.70	.30
France	348,768	460,863	28.85	29.82	437,834	678,426	18.63	1.88
Germany	123,679	244,068	10.23	15.79	359,128	673,773	15.28	1.87
Italy	1,762	2,366	.15	.15	154,322	261,831	6.57	.73
Roumania	.....	179	.....	.01	6,614	14,174	.28	.04
Russia	220	688	.02	.04	14,992	43,555	.64	.12
South Africa	9,039	10,525	.75	.68	53,572	79,287	2.28	.22
South America, not elsewhere specified	13,899	17,651	1.15	1.14	35,935	32,747	1.53	.09
Turkey:								
European	3,968	4,947	.33	.32	7,276	9,099	.31	.03
Asiatic	6,173	7,137	.51	.46	13,008	15,484	.56	.04
United Kingdom	341,936	356,017	28.28	23.04	656,971	877,402	27.95	2.44
United States	220	149	.02	.01	220	496	.01	.001

PER CENT OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Argentina	+ 181.69	+ 186.39	Italy	+8,658.34	+10,966.40
Australian Commonwealth	+ 505.68	+ 557.29	Russia	+6,714.55	+ 6,230.67
Austria-Hungary	+1,475.09	+1,578.76	South Africa	+ 492.68	+ 653.32
Belgium	+3,935.70	+4,245.81	South America, not elsewhere specified	+ 158.73	+ 85.52
Canada	+1,296.61	+ 850.36	Turkey:		
Chile	− 2.24	+ 1.03	European	+ 83.37	+ 83.93
Denmark	+ 581.32	+ 924.01	Asiatic	+ 110.73	+ 116.95
Egypt	− 59.96	− 54.46	United Kingdom	+ 92.13	+ 146.45
France	+ 25.54	+ 47.21	United States	.....	+ 232.89
Germany	+ 190.37	+ 176.06			

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Analysis of Exports to Leading Countries—Footwear with Uppers of Calf, Horse, Goat, Kid, Sheep, or Fancy Leather, Lined or Not.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.	
	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina	37,699	$75,062	4.55	6.09	94,577	$204,580	6.15	7.62
Australian Commonwealth [1]	661	1,285	.08	.10	13,889	21,300	.90	.79
Austria-Hungary	6,614	13,314	.80	1.08	89,727	184,440	5.83	6.87
Belgium	661	1,061	.08	.09	16,535	33,580	1.07	1.25
British India	2,425	4,296	.29	.35	1,543	2,629	.10	.10
Central America	2,205	2,664	.27	.22	882	1,354	.06	.05
Chile	19,400	38,302	2.34	3.11	14,771	32,914	.96	1.23
Denmark	441	464	.05	.04	11,023	15,511	.72	.58
Egypt	176,809	206,655	21.34	16.75	74,295	96,832	4.83	3.61
France	302,692	427,670	36.54	34.67	362,436	595,980	23.56	22.21
Germany	110,010	227,764	13.28	18.47	238,317	514,147	15.49	19.16
Italy	1,102	1,908	.13	.15	134,922	238,039	8.77	8.87
Roumania	.....	179	.....	.01	4,630	9,903	.30	.37
Russia	220	688	.03	.05	12,346	33,462	.80	1.25
South Africa	3,968	6,644	.48	.54	30,864	51,236	2.01	1.91
South America, not elsewhere specified	5,512	10,985	.67	.89	4,189	10,424	.27	.39
Turkey:								
European	3,527	4,609	.43	.37	5,512	7,445	.36	.28
Asiatic	4,409	5,596	.53	.45	9,480	12,260	.62	.46
United Kingdom	147,050	199,496	17.75	16.17	411,378	604,169	26.74	22.51
United States	.....	.....	.....	.....	220	496	.01	.02

PER CENT OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Argentina	+ 150.87	+ 172.55	Germany	+ 116.63	+ 125.74
Australian Commonwealth [1]	+2,001.21	+1,557.59	Italy	+12,143.33	+12,275.84
Austria-Hungary	+1,256.62	+1,285.31	Russia	+5,511.82	+ 4,763.06
Belgium	+2,401.51	+3,065.88	South Africa	+ 677.82	+ 671.16
British India	− 36.37	− 38.80	South America, not elsewhere specified	− 24.00	− 5.11
Central America	− 60.00	− 49.17	Turkey:		
Chile	− 23.86	− 14.06	European	+ 56.28	+ 61.53
Denmark	+2,399.55	+3,242.89	Asiatic	+ 115.01	+ 119.17
Egypt	− 57.98	− 53.14	United Kingdom	+ 179.75	+ 202.85
France	+ 19.74	+ 39.36			

[1] Figures include New Zealand in 1908.

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ANALYSIS OF EXPORTS TO PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES—FOOTWEAR OF COTTON, FELT, COMMON MATERIAL, LASTINGS, VELVET OR PLUSH (EXCEPT SILK VELVET AND SILK PLUSH), WITH LEATHER SOLES OR ORNAMENTED WITH LEATHER.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.	
	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina	41,006	$36,877	12.09	13.13	126,985	$109,831	18.19	15.55
Australian Commonwealth	10,803	10,870	3.18	3.87	51,588	61,366	7.39	8.69
Austria-Hungary	441	462	.13	.16	28,439	33,461	4.07	4.74
Belgium	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,480	11,130	1.36	1.58
Denmark	3,086	2,222	.91	.79	12,346	10,583	1.77	1.50
Egypt	35,053	29,697	10.53	10.58	12,566	11,982	1.80	1.70
France	22,046	20,651	6.50	7.35	60,186	69,094	8.62	9.78
Germany	11,464	13,687	3.38	4.87	102,734	121,014	14.72	17.13
Italy	220	205	.06	.07	14,330	18,900	2.05	2.68
South Africa	5,071	3,881	1.49	1.38	16,535	17,235	2.37	2.44
South America, not elsewhere specified	8,377	6,666	2.47	2.37	31,746	22,093	4.55	3.13
United Kingdom	190,918	149,117	56.27	53.11	204,587	188,090	29.31	26.63

PER CENT INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Argentina	+ 209.67	+ 197.83	Germany	+ 796.14	+ 784.15
Australian Commonwealth	+ 377.53	+ 464.54	Italy	+6,413.64	+9,119.51
Austria-Hungary	+6,348.75	+7,142.64	South Africa	+ 226.07	+ 344.09
Denmark	+ 300.06	+ 376.28	South America, not elsewhere specified	+ 278.97	+ 231.43
Egypt	− 64.15	− 59.65	United Kingdom	+ 7.16	+ 26.14
France	+ 173.00	+ 234.58			

ANALYSIS OF EXPORTS TO PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES—FOOTWEAR OF SILK, VELVET, OR PLUSH, WITH LEATHER SOLES OR ORNAMENTED WITH LEATHER.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.	
	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pounds.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,630	$10,374	5.06	5.27
Australian Commonwealth[1]	220	$239	3.99	2.19	5,291	11,511	5.78	5.84
Canada	442	1,237	8.02	11.34	5,071	10,413	5.54	5.29
Germany	882	1,877	16.00	17.21	17,637	38,302	19.28	19.45
South Africa	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,173	10,816	6.75	5.49
United Kingdom	3,748	7,275	68.00	66.69	41,006	85,143	44.82	43.23

PER CENT INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Australian Commonwealth	+2,305.00	+4,716.32	Germany	+1,899.66	+1,940.60
Canada	+1,047.29	+ 741.79	United Kingdom	+ 994.08	+1,070.35

[1] Figures include New Zealand in 1908.

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Total Exports of Footwear from Switzerland.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	1908.		1913.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes:				
Of brown or blackened leather of cow, heifer, or buffalo hide of undressed leather—				
Unlined—				
Argentina	1,102	$1,106	1,102	$788
Austria-Hungary	220	170	----	----
France	13,448	7,030	5,512	3,341
Germany	661	442	----	----
Italy	----	----	2,425	1,395
Persia and Afghanistan	441	331	----	----
United Kingdom	220	129	----	----
Total	16,092	9,208	9,039	5,721
Lined—				
Africa, not elsewhere specified	441	386	----	----
Argentina	882	633	----	----
Austria-Hungary	441	385	661	566
Egypt	3,528	2,099	----	----
France	6,614	3,999	4,630	3,029
Germany	220	164	220	200
Italy	220	126	882	590
United States	220	149	----	----
Total	12,566	7,941	6,393	4,385
With uppers of calf, horse, goat, kid, sheep, or fancy leather, lined or not—				
Africa, not elsewhere specified	661	757	220	314
Algeria and Tunis	441	498	882	1,204
Argentina	37,699	75,062	94,577	204,580
Australian Commonwealth	[1] 661	[1] 1,285	13,889	21,300
Austria-Hungary	6,614	13,314	89,727	184,440
Belgium	661	1,061	16,535	33,590
Brazil	1,102	2,094	441	771
British India	2,425	4,296	1,543	2,629
Bulgaria	----	----	----	268
Canada	----	----	441	761
Central America	2,205	2,664	882	1,354
Chile	19,400	38,302	14,771	32,914
Denmark	441	464	11,023	15,511
Dutch East Indies	----	----	----	163
Egypt	176,809	206,655	74,295	96,832
France	302,692	427,670	362,436	595,980
Germany	110,010	227,764	238,317	514,147
Greece	----	----	220	318
Italy	1,102	1,908	134,922	238,039
Mexico	----	----	----	116
Netherlands	----	191	----	314
New Zealand	[2]	[2]	1,102	2,296
Persia and Afghanistan	661	889	882	979
Roumania	----	179	4,630	9,903
Russia	220	688	12,346	33,462
Serbia	----	----	2,205	3,952
South Africa	3,968	6,644	30,864	51,236
South America, not elsewhere specified	5,512	10,985	4,189	10,424
Spain	220	357	----	249
Turkey—				
European	3,527	4,609	5,512	7,445
Asiatic	4,409	5,596	9,480	12,260
United Kingdom	147,050	199,496	411,378	604,169
United States	----	----	220	496
All other countries	----	----	661	1,205
Total	828,490	1,233,428	1,538,590	2,683,620
Of stuffs of all kinds, without leather soles—				
Austria-Hungary	----	----	1,984	935
British India	882	270	----	----
France	441	232	220	332
Italy	----	----	220	113
Total	1,323	502	2,424	1,380
Of list, without leather soles—				
France	220	150	220	191

[1] Includes New Zealand.
[2] Included under Australian Commonwealth.

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TOTAL EXPORTS OF FOOTWEAR FROM SWITZERLAND—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	1908.		1913.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
Boots and shoes—Continued.				
Of cotton, felt, common material, lastings, velvet or plush (except silk velvet and silk plush), with leather soles or ornamented with leather—				
Africa, not elsewhere specified	661	$311	1,764	$1,792
Algeria and Tunis	.....	.....	1,764	1,097
Argentina	41,006	36,877	126,985	109,831
Australian Commonwealth	[1] 10,803	[1] 10,870	51,588	61,366
Austria-Hungary	441	462	28,439	33,461
Belgium	.....	.....	9,480	11,130
British India	5,291	2,110	5,512	5,534
Canada	.....	.....	661	582
Central America	2,205	1,717	1,764	1,866
Chile	441	444	4,630	5,953
China	.....	.....	441	459
Denmark	3,086	2,222	12,346	10,583
Egypt	35,053	29,697	12,566	11,982
France	22,046	20,651	60,186	69,094
Germany	11,464	13,687	102,734	121,014
Greece	.....	.....	661	570
Italy	220	205	14,330	18,900
New Zealand	([2])	([2])	1,102	1,089
Roumania	.....	.....	882	1,217
Russia	.....	.....	1,323	5,775
Serbia	.....	.....	661	816
South Africa	5,071	3,881	16,535	17,235
South America, not elsewhere specified	8,377	6,666	31,746	22,093
Spain	.....	.....	.....	176
Turkey—				
European	441	338	1,764	1,374
Asiatic	1,764	1,541	3,528	3,224
United Kingdom	190,918	149,117	204,587	188,090
Total	339,288	280,796	697,979	706,303
Of silk, silk velvet or plush, with leather soles or ornamented with leather—				
Argentina	.....	.....	4,630	10,374
Australian Commonwealth	[1] 220	[1] 239	5,291	11,511
Austria-Hungary	220	281	3,527	8,837
Belgium	.....	.....	661	1,389
British India	.....	.....	661	1,100
Canada	442	1,237	5,071	10,413
Chile	.....	.....	.....	280
Denmark	.....	.....	661	1,411
Egypt	.....	.....	.....	205
France	.....	.....	2,205	5,629
Germany	882	1,877	17,637	38,302
Italy	.....	.....	882	2,375
New Zealand	.....	.....	661	1,291
Roumania	.....	.....	1,102	3,054
Russia	.....	.....	1,323	4,318
South Africa	.....	.....	6,173	10,816
South America, not elsewhere specified	.....	.....	.....	230
Turkey—European	.....	.....	.....	280
United Kingdom	3,748	7,275	41,006	85,143
Total	5,512	10,909	91,491	196,958
Not otherwise specified—				
Austria-Hungary	.....	.....	661	274
France	3,307	1,131	2,425	830
Egypt	1,543	926	.....	.....
Germany	442	134	220	110
Italy	220	127	661	219
Total	5,512	2,318	3,967	1,433
Grand total	1,209,003	1,545,256	2,350,104	35,999,877

[1] Includes New Zealand.

[2] Included under Australian Commonwealth.

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UNITED KINGDOM.

Official reports of the United Kingdom show that its exports of boots and shoes amounted to 848,795 dozen pairs, value $10,404,227, in 1908 and to 1,587,129 dozen pairs, value $20,961,076, in 1913, the increase for the period being 86.99 per cent in quantity and 101.47 per cent in value.

The annual statement of the trade of the United Kingdom gives frontier values (c. i. f. prices for imports and f. o. b. values for exports). The statements of both quantities and values are based on the declarations of importers and exporters, as subsequently checked by customs officials by reference to current market prices. In the case of imports the values given are intended to represent their cost, plus insurance and freight to the place of landing, or, when consigned for sale, the latest sale value of such goods. Duty is not included. In the case of exports the values are intended to represent the cost of the goods, including all charges thereon up to the time of their delivery on board ship.

ANALYSIS OF EXPORTS TO LEADING COUNTRIES—FOOTWEAR OF ALL KINDS.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.	
	Dozen pairs.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Dozen pairs.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina	16,567	$243,826	1.95	2.34	66,209	$790,845	4.17	3.77
Australia	90,482	581,172	10.66	5.59	235,100	1,617,844	14.81	7.72
Austria-Hungary					14,117	312,395	.89	1.49
Belgium	11,982	240,132	1.41	2.31	53,840	1,174,715	3.39	5.60
British India	64,915	942,894	7.65	9.06	159,297	2,110,801	10.04	10.07
British West Indies	39,118	319,456	4.61	3.07	32,949	297,864	2.08	1.42
Canada	26,416	130,125	3.11	1.25	113,607	750,988	7.16	3.58
Channel Islands	17,407	166,843	2.05	1.60	11,950	135,333	.75	.65
Chile	4,029	61,741	.47	.59	12,453	171,987	.78	.82
Egypt	19,010	331,322	2.24	3.18	29,781	472,459	1.88	2.25
France	31,920	964,487	3.76	9.27	56,566	1,921,445	3.56	9.17
Germany	10,379	185,662	1.22	1.78	33,666	594,716	2.12	2.84
Italy	1,694	44,796	.20	.43	25,025	563,526	1.58	2.69
Netherlands	26,484	205,395	3.12	1.97	57,297	403,068	3.61	1.92
New Zealand	93,221	938,986	10.98	9.03	114,416	1,526,708	7.21	7.28
Peru	3,320	53,424	.39	.51	7,210	119,443	.45	.57
Rhodesia	6,176	101,063	.73	.97	9,415	160,405	.59	.77
Russia					1,583	51,045	.10	.24
Straits Settlements	5,936	101,102	.70	.97	18,627	308,852	1.17	1.47
Switzerland					6,596	172,571	.42	.82
Turkey	1,714	28,333	.20	.27	15,015	263,905	.95	1.26
Union of South Africa	301,835	3,930,667	35.56	37.78	381,748	5,502,732	24.05	26.25
United States					4,912	66,841	.31	.32

PER CENT INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Argentina	+299.64	+224.35	Germany	+ 224.37	+ 220.32
Australia	+159.83	+178.38	Italy	+1,377.27	+1,157.98
Belgium	+349.34	+389.20	Netherlands	+ 116.35	+ 96.24
British India	+145.39	+123.86	New Zealand	+ 22.74	+ 62.59
British West Indies	− 15.77	− 6.76	Peru	+ 117.17	+ 123.58
Canada	+330.07	+477.13	Rhodesia	+ 52.44	+ 58.72
Channel Islands	− 31.35	− 18.89	Straits Settlements	+ 213.80	+ 205.49
Chile	+209.08	+178.56	Turkey	+ 776.02	+ 831.44
Egypt	+ 56.66	+ 42.60	Union of South Africa	+ 26.48	+ 39.99
France	+ 77.21	+ 99.22			

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Analysis of Exports to Leading Countries—Footwear of Leather or of Which the Chief Value is Leather.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.	
	Dozen pairs.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Dozen pairs.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina	16,567	$243,826	2.17	2.40	59,296	$741,523	4.08	3.63
Australia	72,542	529,431	9.49	5.22	210,353	1,546,370	14.48	7.58
Austria-Hungary					14,117	312,395	.97	1.53
British India	64,915	942,894	8.49	9.30	159,297	2,110,801	10.96	10.34
Belgium	11,982	240,132	1.57	2.37	53,840	1,174,715	3.71	3.76
British West Indies	33,809	303,207	4.42	2.99	29,580	286,807	2.04	1.41
Canada	7,106	67,946	.93	.69	73,637	588,671	5.07	2.88
Channel Islands	17,407	166,843	2.28	1.65	11,950	135,333	.82	.66
Chile	4,029	61,741	.53	.61	12,453	171,987	.86	.84
Egypt	19,010	331,322	2.49	3.27	29,781	472,459	2.05	2.31
France	31,920	964,487	4.18	9.51	56,566	1,921,445	3.89	9.41
Germany	10,379	185,662	1.36	1.83	33,666	594,716	2.32	2.91
Italy	1,694	44,796	.22	.44	25,025	563,526	1.72	2.76
Netherlands	24,037	197,200	3.15	1.94	50,550	381,003	3.48	1.87
New Zealand	76,352	897,908	9.99	8.85	99,523	1,486,224	6.85	7.28
Peru	3,320	53,424	.43	.53	7,210	119,443	.50	.59
Rhodesia	6,176	101,063	.81	1.00	9,415	160,405	.65	.79
Russia					1,583	51,045	.11	.25
Straits Settlements	5,936	101,102	.78	1.00	18,627	308,852	1.28	1.51
Switzerland					6,596	172,571	.45	.85
Turkey	1,714	28,333	.22	.28	15,015	263,905	1.03	1.29
Union of South Africa	298,858	3,917,839	39.11	38.64	377,338	5,477,324	25.97	26.83
United States					3,497	62,768	.24	.31

PER CENT INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Argentina	+257.92	+204.12	Germany	+ 224.37	+ 220.32
Australia	+189.97	+192.08	Italy	+1,377.27	+1,157.98
British India	+145.39	+123.86	Netherlands	+ 110.30	+ 93.21
Belgium	+349.34	+389.19	New Zealand	+ 30.35	+ 65.52
British West Indies	− 12.51	− 5.41	Peru	+ 117.17	+ 123.58
Canada	+936.27	+766.38	Rhodesia	+ 52.44	+ 58.72
Channel Islands	− 31.35	− 18.89	Straits Settlements	+ 213.80	+ 205.49
Chile	+209.08	+178.56	Turkey	+ 776.02	+ 831.44
Egypt	+ 56.66	+ 42.60	Union of South Africa	+ 26.26	+ 39.80
France	+ 77.21	+ 99.22			

Analysis of Exports to Leading Countries—Footwear of Materials Except Leather and Rubber.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total of the class.	
	Dozen pairs.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Dozen pairs.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina					6,913	$49,322	5.15	8.98
Australia	17,940	$51,741	21.21	19.63	24,747	71,474	18.42	13.00
British East Indies	9,699	27,886	11.46	10.57	9,808	44,947	7.30	8.18
Canada	19,310	62,179	22.83	23.58	39,970	162,317	29.76	29.53
New Zealand	16,869	41,078	19.94	15.58	14,893	40,484	11.09	7.37

PER CENT OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Australia	+37.94	+38.14	Canada	+106.99	+161.05
British East Indies	+ 1.12	+61.30	New Zealand	− 11.71	− 1.45

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TOTAL EXPORTS OF FOOTWEAR FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	1908		1913	
	Dozen pairs.	Value.	Dozen pairs.	Value.
Boots and shoes of leather or of which the chief value is leather:				
Argentina	16,567	$243,826	59,296	$741,523
Australia—				
New South Wales	28,917	190,436	91,814	651,439
Queensland	8,915	55,677	17,541	135,539
South (including northern territory)	9,368	74,803	25,921	198,242
Tasmania	2,865	22,814	5,300	37,749
Victoria	15,143	124,354	48,892	331,642
Western	7,334	61,347	20,885	191,468
Austria-Hungary	.....	.....	14,117	312,396
British India—				
Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa	14,419	193,375	57,163	641,896
Bombay (including Kerachi)	28,472	424,042	68,144	937,372
Burma	20,035	297,362	29,521	467,418
Eastern Bengal and Assam	69	983	(1)	(1)
Madras	1,920	27,132	4,469	63,615
Belgium	11,982	240,132	53,840	1,174,715
British West Indies	33,809	303,207	29,580	286,807
Canada	7,106	67,946	73,637	588,671
Channel Islands	17,407	166,843	11,950	135,333
Chile	4,029	61,741	12,453	171,987
Egypt	19,010	331,322	29,781	472,459
France	31,920	964,487	56,566	1,921,445
Germany	10,379	185,662	33,666	594,718
Italy	1,694	44,796	25,025	563,526
Netherlands	24,037	197,200	50,550	381,003
New Zealand	76,352	897,908	99,523	1,486,224
Peru	3,320	53,424	7,210	119,443
Rhodesia	6,176	101,063	9,415	160,405
Russia	.....	.....	1,583	51,045
Straits Settlements	5,936	101,102	18,627	308,852
Switzerland	.....	.....	6,596	172,571
Turkey	1,714	28,333	15,015	263,905
Union of South Africa—				
Cape of Good Hope	162,352	1,971,492	182,496	2,620,669
Natal	44,773	639,006	58,834	791,346
Orange Free State	10,219	141,347	14,975	223,475
Transvaal	81,514	1,165,994	121,033	1,841,534
United States	.....	.....	3,497	62,768
All other countries	56,444	761,432	93,900	1,307,156
Total	764,197	10,140,588	1,452,815	20,411,444
Boots and shoes of other materials except rubber:				
Argentina	.....	.....	6,913	49,322
Australia	17,940	51,741	24,743	71,474
British East Indies	9,699	27,866	9,808	44,947
British West Indies	5,309	16,249	3,389	11,057
Canada	19,310	62,179	39,970	162,317
Netherlands	2,447	8,195	6,747	22,065
New Zealand	16,869	41,078	14,893	40,484
Siam	23	516	218	1,299
Union of South Africa—Cape of Good Hope	2,977	12,828	4,410	25,408
United States	.....	.....	1,415	4,073
All other countries	10,024	42,986	21,824	117,186
Total	84,598	263,638	134,314	549,632
Grand total	848,795	10,404,227	1,587,129	20,961,076

[1] Included under Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa.

UNITED STATES.

In 1908 the United States, in the official record of exports, showed but one class of leather boots and shoes. Between that time and 1913 this class was subdivided into four classes, and therefore no comparative figures can be deduced showing increase of exports by kinds during the period covered. In 1908 exports of the footwear referred to amounted to 6,552,412 pairs, value, $11,469,559, and in 1913, to 10,650,160 pairs, value, $18,547,840, a gain of 62.54 per cent in quantity, and 61.71 in value.

The value of merchandise imported into the United States is the actual market value or wholesale price thereof at the time of exportation to the United States in the

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principal markets of the country whence exported, including the value of all containers or coverings, whether holding liquids or solids, and all other costs, charges, and expenses incident to placing the merchandise in condition, packed ready for shipment to the United States.

The value of exports of domestic merchandise is their value at the time of exportation in the ports of the United States whence they are exported. All statistics are for fiscal years ending June 30.

ANALYSIS OF EXPORTS TO LEADING COUNTRIES—FOOTWEAR OF ALL KINDS.

Countries to which exported.	1908				1913			
	Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.		Footwear exported.		Per cent of total footwear exports.	
	Pairs.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.	Pairs.	Value.	In quantity.	In value.
Argentina	36,289	$94,661	0.55	0.83	196,091	$653,640	1.84	3.52
Australia and Tasmania	89,992	184,593	1.37	1.61	110,205	266,717	1.04	1.44
Austria-Hungary	47,938	140,440	.73	1.22	109,263	320,560	1.03	1.73
Belgium	32,206	86,466	.49	.75	31,974	95,018	.30	.51
Brazil	51,146	151,407	.78	1.32	161,179	486,188	1.51	2.62
British South Africa	53,808	135,212	.82	1.18	73,880	176,574	.69	.95
British West Indies	399,562	395,059	6.10	3.44	380,679	418,266	3.58	2.25
British Honduras	63,951	105,038	.98	.92	51,790	95,444	.49	.51
Canada	654,612	1,215,248	9.99	10.60	1,860,612	3,407,646	17.47	18.37
Chile	11,774	28,196	.18	.25	61,886	175,399	.58	.95
Colombia	31,949	59,338	.49	.52	17,900	32,426	.17	.17
Cuba	1,976,901	2,577,966	30.17	22.48	3,805,034	4,045,408	35.73	21.81
Dominican Republic	72,072	79,666	1.10	.70	87,977	98,585	.83	.53
France	73,654	238,702	1.12	2.08	138,541	461,185	1.30	2.49
Germany	211,153	589,238	3.22	5.14	437,013	1,228,916	4.10	6.63
Italy	14,343	29,973	.22	.26	172,448	448,816	1.62	2.42
Honduras	32,167	56,178	.49	.49	62,403	116,396	.59	.63
Mexico	786,380	1,548,545	12.00	13.50	925,096	1,924,933	8.69	10.38
Newfoundland and Labrador	23,117	27,980	.35	.24	59,739	83,599	.56	.45
New Zealand	46,822	96,004	.71	.84	11,315	29,882	.11	.16
Panama	322,278	508,043	4.92	4.43	365,197	667,671	3.43	3.60
Peru	44,739	99,185	.68	.86	59,650	162,190	.56	.87
Philippine Islands	350,389	565,487	5.35	4.93	345,432	614,405	3.24	3.31
Russia, European	3,570	10,112	.05	.09	85,309	227,509	.80	1.23
United Kingdom	817,302	1,950,261	12.47	17.00	592,520	1,341,025	5.56	7.23
Uruguay	3,572	9,373	.05	.08	45,679	140,378	.43	.76

PER CENT OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (−), 1908 TO 1913.

Countries.	Quantity.	Value.	Countries.	Quantity.	Value.
Argentina	**+440.36**	**+590.51**	Germany	**+ 106.97**	**+ 108.56**
Australia and Tasmania	**+ 22.46**	**+ 44.49**	Italy	**+1,102.32**	**+1,397.40**
Austria-Hungary	**+127.93**	**+128.25**	Honduras	**+ 94.00**	**+ 107.19**
Belgium	**− .72**	**+ 9.89**	Mexico	**+ 17.64**	**+ 24.31**
Brazil	**+215.14**	**+221.11**	Newfoundland and Labrador	**+ 158.42**	**+ 198.78**
British South Africa	**+ 37.30**	**+ 30.59**	New Zealand	**− 75.83**	**− 68.87**
British West Indies	**− 4.73**	**+ 5.87**	Panama	**+ 13.32**	**+ 31.42**
British Honduras	**+ 19.02**	**− 9.13**	Peru	**+ 33.33**	**+ 63.52**
Canada	**+184.23**	**+180.41**	Philippine Islands	**− 1.41**	**+ 8.65**
Chile	**+425.62**	**+522.07**	Russia, European	**+2,289.61**	**+2,149.99**
Colombia	**− 43.97**	**− 45.35**	United Kingdom	**− 27.50**	**− 31.24**
Cuba	**+ 92.47**	**+ 56.92**	Uruguay	**+1,178.81**	**+1,397.68**
Dominican Republic	**+ 22.07**	**+ 23.75**			
France	**+ 88.10**	**+ 93.21**			

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Analysis of Exports to Leading Countries in 1913 by Classes.

Classes and countries to which exported.	Pairs.	Value.	Per cent of total of the class.	
			In quantity.	In value.
Men's boots and shoes:				
Argentina	136,792	$475,659	2.60	4.23
Austria-Hungary	58,298	181,628	1.11	1.61
Belgium	29,869	89,452	.57	.79
Brazil	129,047	401,289	2.45	3.57
British Honduras	22,559	53,114	.43	.47
British South Africa	49,178	125,450	.93	1.11
British West Indies—Jamaica	80,895	104,207	1.54	.93
Canada	529,502	1,290,311	10.07	11.46
Chile	48,204	140,626	.92	1.25
Cuba	1,506,031	1,965,201	28.63	17.46
France	112,409	380,276	2.14	3.38
Germany	367,916	1,031,338	6.99	9.16
Honduras	34,815	76,133	.66	.68
Italy	141,534	366,499	2.69	3.25
Mexico	643,153	1,387,166	12.23	12.32
Newfoundland and Labrador	30,341	50,805	.58	.45
Norway	20,975	70,651	.40	.63
Panama	226,268	497,785	4.30	4.42
Peru	49,676	144,609	.94	1.28
Philippine Islands	222,067	464,739	4.22	4.13
Russia, European	75,801	197,942	1.44	1.76
United Kingdom—England	296,761	758,035	5.64	6.73
Uruguay	36,741	116,167	.70	1.03
Women's boots and shoes:				
Argentina	50,443	161,045	1.57	2.93
Australia and Tasmania	36,724	86,244	1.14	1.57
Austria-Hungary	49,397	136,159	1.54	2.48
Brazil	27,064	79,835	.84	1.45
British West Indies—Jamaica	74,471	76,540	2.31	1.40
Canada	849,050	1,676,222	26.39	30.51
Cuba	1,011,282	1,113,704	31.43	20.27
Dominican Republic	47,043	57,598	1.46	1.05
France	22,903	74,188	.71	1.35
Germany	66,263	195,050	2.06	3.55
Italy	29,079	79,047	.90	1.44
Mexico	245,457	492,787	7.63	8.97
Norway	9,081	23,985	.28	.44
Philippine Islands	74,311	105,252	2.31	1.92
United Kingdom—				
England	221,933	447,256	6.90	8.14
Scotland	18,523	50,849	.58	.93
Children's boots and shoes:				
Argentina	7,164	14,728	.39	1.02
British West Indies—Jamaica	27,854	21,280	1.52	1.47
Canada	182,278	141,216	9.98	9.76
Cuba	1,282,093	960,562	70.19	66.40
Dominican Republic	28,872	19,233	1.58	1.33
Mexico	30,998	39,316	1.70	2.72
Panama	57,903	54,257	3.17	3.75
Philippine Islands	46,528	42,030	2.55	2.91
United Kingdom—England	20,820	16,681	1.14	1.15
Slippers:				
Australia and Tasmania	4,447	6,099	1.29	1.73
Canada	299,782	299,897	86.80	85.27
Cuba	5,628	5,941	1.63	1.69
France	3,018	6,272	.87	1.78
Mexico	5,488	5,726	1.59	1.63
Panama	6,982	4,959	2.02	1.41
United Kingdom—England	3,687	6,998	1.07	1.99

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TOTAL EXPORTS OF FOOTWEAR FROM THE UNITED STATES IN 1908.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	Pairs.	Value.
Boots and shoes:		
Argentina	36,289	$94,661
Austria-Hungary	47,938	140,440
Azores and Madeira Islands	37	81
Belgium	32,206	86,466
Bermuda	40,352	49,482
Bolivia	6,294	13,078
Brazil	51,146	151,407
British Africa—		
West	2,958	3,759
South	53,808	135,212
British Guiana	32,171	29,726
British Honduras	63,951	105,038
British Oceania—		
Australia and Tasmania	89,992	184,593
New Zealand	46,822	96,004
All other	10	38
British West Indies	399,562	395,059
Canada	654,612	1,215,248
Canary Islands	112	155
Chile	11,774	28,196
China—Japanese	25	52
Chinese Empire	12,455	26,112
Colombia	31,949	59,338
Costa Rica	2,143	3,787
Cuba	1,976,901	2,577,966
Danish West Indies	33,541	34,970
Denmark	8,291	23,001
Dominican Republic	72,072	79,666
Dutch Guiana	12,870	11,734
Dutch West Indies	9,492	9,341
East Indies—		
British India	6,000	13,939
Straits Settlements	2,495	5,339
Other British	170	505
Dutch	1,904	6,233
Ecuador	35,043	51,178
Egypt	9,399	24,707
France	73,654	238,702
French Africa	361	1,295
French Guiana	103	186
French Oceania	3,124	3,935
Boots and shoes—Continued.		
French West Indies	786	$951
German Africa	50	220
German Oceania	229	392
Germany	211,153	589,238
Greece	100	150
Guatemala	5,145	10,531
Haiti	2,065	2,327
Honduras	32,167	56,178
Hongkong	10,350	21,357
Italy	14,343	20,973
Japan	3,952	5,781
Korea	238	258
Liberia	816	1,310
Mexico	786,380	1,548,545
Netherlands	9,291	24,162
Newfoundland and Labrador	23,117	27,980
Nicaragua	19,994	34,631
Norway	5,978	15,622
Panama	322,278	508,043
Paraguay	72	199
Peru	44,739	99,185
Philippine Islands	350,389	565,487
Portugal	2,865	3,725
Portuguese Africa	963	2,998
Roumania	96	333
Russia—		
European	3,570	10,112
Asiatic	1,863	4,011
Salvador	683	914
Serbia	180	457
Siam	82	166
Spain	389	881
Sweden	90	220
Switzerland	11,190	31,170
Turkey—		
European	2,976	9,113
Asiatic	708	2,235
United Kingdom	817,302	1,950,261
Uruguay	3,572	9,373
Venezuela	325	441
Total	6,552,412	11,469,559

TOTAL EXPORTS OF FOOTWEAR FROM THE UNITED STATES IN 1913.

Men's boots and shoes:		
Argentina	136,792	$475,659
Austria-Hungary	58,298	181,628
Azores and Madeira Islands	36	185
Belgian Kongo	18	44
Belgium	29,869	89,452
Bermuda	18,454	27,944
Bolivia	6,139	19,282
Brazil	129,047	401,289
British Africa—		
West	1,210	3,150
South	49,178	125,450
East	340	899
British Guiana	8,991	11,246
British Honduras	22,559	53,114
British Oceania—		
Australia and Tasmania	64,117	168,373
New Zealand	7,516	3,773
All other	1,253	2,831
British West Indies—		
Barbados	8,751	12,422
Jamaica	80,895	104,207
Trinidad and Tobago	33,144	44,327
All other	38,166	47,070
Canada	529,502	1,290,311
Canary Islands	11	25
Chile	48,204	140,626
China	8,419	21,464
Men's boots and shoes—Con.		
China leased territory—		
Japanese	2,012	$4,252
Chosen (Korea)	32	98
Colombia	48,204	21,379
Costa Rica	1,784	4,245
Cuba	1,506,031	1,965,201
Danish West Indies	10,166	13,140
Denmark	9,616	25,585
Dominican Republic	11,922	21,611
Dutch Guiana	2,543	3,695
Dutch West Indies	3,801	5,404
East Indies—		
British India	3,208	8,862
Straits Settlements	4,574	9,458
Dutch	611	1,782
Ecuador	21,652	38,353
Egypt	10,552	31,073
France	112,409	380,276
French Africa	48	204
French Guiana	19	47
French Oceania	8,514	13,447
French West Indies	530	678
German Africa	305	729
German Oceania	503	1,049
Germany	367,916	1,031,338
Gibraltar	10	45
Guatemala	5,000	12,591
Haiti	6,312	9,695
Honduras	34,815	76,133

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TOTAL EXPORTS OF FOOTWEAR FROM THE UNITED STATES IN 1913—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	Pairs.	Value.
Men's boots and shoes—Con.		
Hongkong	5,648	$15,538
Italy	141,534	366,499
Japan	2,240	5,263
Liberia	572	988
Malta, Gozo, etc	146	457
Mexico	643,153	1,387,166
Netherlands	8,535	25,937
Newfoundland and Labrador	30,341	50,805
Nicaragua	22,150	49,032
Norway	20,975	70,651
Panama	226,268	497,785
Paraguay	5,564	15,220
Persia	118	348
Peru	49,676	144,609
Philippine Islands	222,067	464,739
Portugal	919	4,047
Portuguese Africa	832	3,111
Roumania	5,818	18,978
Russia—		
European	75,801	197,942
Asiatic	184	527
Salvador	144	429
Serbia and Montenegro	70	198
Spain	3,412	11,894
Sweden	1,720	5,553
Switzerland	11,285	37,837
Turkey—		
European	12,990	37,216
Asiatic	5,594	15,338
United Kingdom—		
England	296,761	758,035
Scotland	3,179	8,279
Ireland	6,624	16,401
Uruguay	36,741	116,167
Venezuela	104	187
Total	5,260,531	11,255,708
Women's boots and shoes:		
Argentina	50,443	161,045
Austria-Hungary	49,397	136,159
Belgian Congo	22	23
Belgium	2,081	5,544
Bermuda	15,958	18,503
Bolivia	720	2,062
Brazil	27,064	79,835
British Africa—		
West	301	481
South	21,839	48,237
East	2	4
British Guiana	9,430	9,258
British Honduras	19,390	32,013
British Oceania—		
Australia and Tasmania	36,724	86,244
New Zealand	3,773	8,976
All other	66	82
British West Indies—		
Barbados	9,900	11,028
Jamaica	74,471	76,540
Trinidad and Tobago	31,412	31,899
All other	42,450	41,795
Canada	849,050	1,676,222
Chile	12,394	33,722
China	3,438	7,122
Colombia	4,824	8,946
Costa Rica	1,202	2,348
Cuba	1,011,282	1,113,704
Danish West India	9,295	10,345
Denmark	2,894	8,021
Dominician Republic	47,043	57,598
Dutch Guiana	551	616
Dutch West Indies	1,564	1,687
East Indies—		
British Indies	1,099	2,454
Straits Settlements	59	142
Dutch	1	3
Ecuador	4,062	6,118
Egypt	560	1,897
France	22,903	74,188

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	Pairs.	Value.
Women's boots and shoes—Continued.		
French Oceania	4,765	$6,978
French West Indies	327	362
German Africa	10	14
German Oceania	20	40
Germany	66,263	195,050
Guatemala	1,379	2,996
Haiti	386	388
Honduras	17,326	28,676
Hongkong	3,208	8,349
Italy	29,079	79,047
Japan	3,208	1,163
Liberia	621	943
Malta, Gozo, etc	104	222
Mexico	245,457	492,787
Netherlands	1,589	3,358
Newf'dl'd and Labrador	16,070	21,854
Nicaragua	11,263	22,070
Norway	9,081	23,985
Panama	74,044	110,670
Paraguay	336	1,079
Persia	49	96
Peru	6,692	13,778
Philippine Islands	74,311	105,252
Portuguese Africa	36	128
Roumania	1,793	5,028
Russia—European	9,412	29,435
Salvador	207	572
Spain	2,649	8,377
Sweden	502	1,307
Switzerland	4,623	14,235
Turkey—		
European	2,202	5,753
Asiatic	3,107	5,189
United Kingdom—		
England	221,933	447,256
Scotland	18,523	50,849
Ireland	13,763	29,865
Uruguay	8,191	23,175
Total	3,217,544	5,493,880
Children's boots and shoes:		
Argentina	7,164	14,728
Austria-Hungary	1,260	2,411
Bermuda	10,382	8,512
Bolivia	306	397
Brazil	4,156	4,484
British Africa—		
South	2,195	2,887
East	2	2
British Guiana	4,354	2,988
British Honduras	9,468	9,972
British Oceania—		
Australia and Tasmania	4,317	6,001
All other	102	107
British West Indies—		
Barbados	4,601	3,865
Jamaica	27,854	21,280
Trinidad and Tobago	14,973	12,623
All other	13,668	10,917
Canada	182,278	141,216
Canary Islands	15	11
Chile	616	685
China	1,641	1,929
Colombia	2,132	2,019
Costa Rica	1,711	1,815
Cuba	1,282,093	960,562
Danish West Indies	4,539	3,569
Dominican Republic	28,872	19,233
Dutch Guiana	144	114
Dutch West Indies	2,832	2,145
East Indies—		
British India	30	35
Straits Settlements	289	114
Ecuador	2,132	2,019
France	211	449
French Oceania	2,544	2,430
French West Indies	133	127
German Africa	6	4

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TOTAL EXPORTS OF FOOTWEAR FROM THE UNITED STATES IN 1913—Continued.

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	Pairs.	Value.
Children's boots and shoes—Continued.		
German Oceania	61	$74
Germany	1,568	1,125
Guatemala	2,272	2,420
Haiti	765	788
Honduras	9,944	11,323
Hongkong	321	256
Italy	690	1,451
Liberia	131	126
Mexico	30,998	39,316
Netherlands	192	35
Newf'd and Labrador	9,564	7,742
Nicaragua	7,856	9,510
Norway	531	1,184
Panama	57,903	54,257
Persia	4	6
Peru	3,210	3,685
Philippine Islands	46,528	42,030
Siam	156	267
Turkey—		
European	147	168
Asiatic	48	47
United Kingdom—		
England	20,820	16,681
Scotland	265	378
Ireland	6,509	5,861
Uruguay	747	1,036
Total	1,826,719	1,446,547
Slipppers:		
Argentina	1,692	2,208
Austria-Hungary	308	362
Belgium	24	22
Bermuda	81	38
Brazil	912	580
British Africa—		
South	668	270
East	2	2
British Guiana	54	33
British Honduras	373	345
British Oceania—		
Australia and Tasmania	4,447	6,099
New Zealand	26	20

Classes of footwear and countries to which exported.	Pairs.	Value.
Slippers—Continued.		
British West Indies—		
Barbados	48	$41
Jamaica	70	55
Trinidad and Tobago	18	10
All other	258	187
Canada	299,782	299,897
Chile	672	366
Colombia	60	82
Costa Rica	12	21
Cuba	5,628	5,941
Danish West Indies	24	20
Denmark	48	21
Dominican Republic	140	143
Ecuador	208	118
Egypt	36	90
France	3,018	6,272
French Oceania	191	274
German Africa	3	3
Germany	1,266	1,403
Haiti	237	168
Honduras	518	264
Hongkong	120	163
Italy	1,145	1,819
Japan	1	1
Mexico	5,488	5,726
Newf'd and Labrador	3,764	3,198
Nicaragua	205	153
Panama	6,982	4,959
Peru	72	118
Philippine Islands	2,526	2,384
Roumania	42	82
Russia—European	96	132
Spain	154	190
United Kingdom—		
England	3,687	6,998
Scotland	60	169
Ireland	396	253
Total	345,366	351,705
Grand total	10,650,160	18,547,840

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE
B. S. CUTLER, Chief

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES—No. 77

STATISTICS OF AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN TRADE 1909 TO 1913

BY

J. J. KRAL

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LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE,
BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE,
Washington, February 12, 1919.

SIR: There is submitted herewith a report on statistics of Austro-Hungarian trade by J. J. Kral, of the Research Division of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. This report gives statistics of the foreign trade of Austria-Hungary for the years 1909 to 1913, by countries and principal classes of commodities. The statistics are necessarily general, as specific articles are not shown separately unless they form an appreciable part of the trade. In addition to the foreign trade statistics are general statistics relating to the dual Monarchy, Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia. Condensed statistics of the foreign trade of Austria and of Hungary are also shown. All figures for these States apply to the territory included within their boundaries prior to the war.

There is considerable interest in the trade of the new States of Čechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, and it would be desirable to show the trade of these States if this could be done. Statistics on the trade of these portions of Austria-Hungary are not available, however, as they are included in the statistics of the dual Monarchy or the old States of Austria and Hungary. The declared exports from Bohemia to the United States and general statistics on Bohemia are given.

This report and Miscellaneous Series No. 75, "Statistics of German Trade," give a comprehensive view of the foreign trade of the Central Powers in the five years preceding the war.

B. S. CUTLER,
Chief of Bureau.

To Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD,
Secretary of Commerce.

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AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN TRADE.

INTRODUCTION.

The State heretofore known as Austria-Hungary was established in 1526 when Ferdinand I of Austria was elected King of Bohemia and of Hungary. The three States retained their independence at first, but the administration was gradually centralized at Vienna. The first and third divisions of Poland (1772, 1795) made Galicia an Austrian possession. In 1867 the Monarchy was divided into two States—Austria (legally known as "Kingdoms and Provinces represented in the Reichsrath") and Hungary. The two States were politically independent of each other, each having its own constitution, parliament, and executive departments, and the citizens of one State being treated as aliens in the other. The union of Austria and Hungary was maintained solely by the identity of the sovereign and the common administration of the foreign affairs, the army and the navy, and the finances incidental to the common affairs. The customs revenue was to be paid into the common treasury and used to defray a part of the common expenditure, 70 per cent of the remainder to be paid by Austria and 30 per cent by Hungary. (In 1907 Hungary's quota was increased to 36.4 per cent.) The old debt of the Monarchy was assumed by Austria, the charges to be borne jointly by the two States. No loans could be contracted jointly after 1867. The requirements of the common services were determined by the so-called delegations, a joint committee of the two parliaments, but the necessary legislation was reserved to the parliaments.

In 1908 the Provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, inhabited by Serbians, which had been administered by Austria-Hungary under a mandate of the Berlin Congress, were annexed by an imperial decree and given a separate administration under the common Ministry of Finance. These Provinces thus became a third separate part of the Monarchy.

Austria-Hungary never formed a unified national State. Natural conditions, historical development, and racial differences divide the Monarchy into several distinct groups having little or nothing in common. Racially, Austria-Hungary consists of three zones. The nothern zone is Slav, with the Čechoslováks in the northwest, Poles and Russians in the northeast. The southern zone is held by the Yugoslavs, with an Italian minority in the extreme southwest. The central zone is occupied by the Germans in the west, the Magyars in the center, and the Roumanians in the east. The division of the Monarchy in 1867 was intended to enable the German minority in Austria and the Magyar minority in Hungary to dominate the Slav and Latin majority by dividing the Čechoslováks and the Yugoslavs

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between the two States. The plan failed, as the differences presented by natural conditions and historical development were too strong to be overcome by an arbitrary administrative division. Austria, with 35 per cent of Germans, did not become a German State; Hungary, with 48 per cent of Magyars, was not transformed into a Magyar State.

The State known as Austria consists of four distinct groups, denominated in Austrian official statistics after the four principal mountain systems as the Bohemian, Carpathian, Alpine, and Carso countries. The communications between the Bohemian and the Alpine countries are good; elsewhere they are poor. Dalmatia is entirely, and the Carpathian countries almost entirely, separated from the other parts of Austria.

The Bohemian countries include Bohemia proper, Moravia, and Silesia. They have an area of 30,623 square miles, with a population of 10,149,000, of which 65.1 per cent are Slavs and 34.9 per cent Germans. Owing to the fertility of the soil and the great mineral wealth these countries are the most thickly populated in the Monarchy (351 inhabitants per square mile). They are far more industrialized than the rest of the Empire. Mining and manufacturing employ 35.2 per cent of the population engaged in gainful occupations, as against 27.1 per cent in the Alpine countries, 13.4 per cent in the Carso countries, and 6.8 per cent in the Carpathian countries. The school system is excellent. The Bohemian countries have only 2.4 per cent of illiterates, as against 24.4 per cent in the other countries of Austria and 33.3 in Hungary. Taking Austria as a whole, the Čechs have the lowest percentage of illiterates, 2.4, the Germans following with 3.1.

The Carpathian countries, including Galicia and Bukovina, have an area of 34,340 square miles, with a population of 8,826,000, or 257 per square mile. The Slavs represent 93.8 per cent of the total population, including 4,709,000 Poles, 3,513,000 Russians, and 10,000 Čechoslováks and other Slavs. The Roumanians number 274,000; the Germans 259,000; and the Magyars 10,000. More than three-fourths of the population (78.6 per cent) are engaged in agriculture, as against 64.6 per cent in the Carso, 39.3 per cent in the Alpine, and 38.9 per cent in the Bohemian countries. Petroleum and salt are the principal mining products. The percentage of illiterates is 41.8 (Poles, 27.4; Russians, 61; Magyars, 36.4).

The Alpine countries include Upper and Lower Austria, Salzburg, Tyrol, Vorarlberg, Styria, and Carinthia, with a total area of 38,994 square miles and a population of 7,532,000, or 193 per square mile. The comparatively large density of population is due largely to the inclusion of Lower Austria with Vienna, the capital. If Lower Austria is left out, the average density of population in the remaining six Alpine countries will be found to be only 128 per square mile. The population includes 85.6 per cent of Germans, 8.9 per cent of Slavs, and 5.5 per cent of Italians (in southern Tyrol). Lower Austria and Vorarlberg are the principal industrial countries of the group; in Styria, Carinthia, and Upper Austria more than one-half of the population is agricultural. In Lower Austria, including Vienna, 19.4 per cent of the population are engaged in commerce. The percentage of illiterates is 3.9.

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The Carso countries include the so-called coast lands (Trieste, Gorizia and Gradisca, Istria), Carniola, and Dalmatia, the latter being separated by Croatia from the remainder of the group. The Carso countries have an area of 11,875 square miles and a population of 2,065,000, or 174 per square mile. The population includes 78 per cent of Slavs, 18.9 per cent of Italians, and 3 per cent of Germans. In the mountainous districts agriculture and cattle raising are the principal occupations; on the coast, fishing and trade. The percentage of illiteracy is 33.2 (10.3 for the Italians, 14.7 for the Slovenes, and 63.7 for the Serbo-Croatians).

Hungary, like Austria, consists of four groups: The northern zone reaching from the Carpathians to the Danube and the upper Tisza, the great central plain, Transylvania, and Croatia-Slavonia. The northern zone is inhabited by Slavs, the Čechoslováks occupying 10 counties between the Danube and the Carpathians and the adjoining 6 counties on the right bank of the Tisza, with the Russians to the east. The great central plain is held by the Magyars, with enclaves of Slavs, Germans, and Roumanians scattered among them. In Transylvania the Roumanians form 55 per cent of the population, the Magyars 34.3, the Germans 8.7 per cent. In Croatia-Slavonia 87.1 per cent of the population are Yugoslavs. The southern part of Hungary, below a line running from Szeged to Arad, is also inhabited by Yugoslavs. According to the census of 1910, the Magyars numbered 10,050,000; the Slavs, 5,579,000; the Roumanians, 2,949,000; and the Germans, 2,037,000. The Germans are scattered throughout Hungary and Transylvania.

The data relating to the various races in the Monarchy should be considered as approximate only. The Austrian census does not classify the inhabitants by race or mother tongue. The standard of classification is the so-called "Umgangssprache," the language of intercourse, which may or may not be identical with the mother tongue. It is admitted in the census report that the determination of the language of intercourse in the case of bilingual population, which is rather large in Austria, may depend on the biased opinion of the landlord, the census enumerator, or the reviewing official, and complaints have been made by the non-Germans that the German language is unduly favored in the enumeration. In Hungary statistics of mother tongue are collected, but a case is cited in the "Slovenská Čítanka" where the Slovák inhabitants of a village were classed as Magyars because they admitted they were "Hungarians," the latter word being considered by the officials as equivalent to "Magyars." Notwithstanding these alleged or real defects, the official figures offer the only criterion of the relative proportion of the several races.

AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY.

Notwithstanding the growing industrialization of Austria, more than one-half of the population engaged in gainful occupation is engaged in agriculture and kindred pursuits, but the percentage is declining. In 1910 only 53.1 per cent were engaged in agriculture, as against 58.2 per cent in 1900 and 62.4 per cent in 1890. During the two decades the percentage of the entire population supported by agriculture declined from 55.9 to 48.4. Less than one-half of the population were supported by agriculture in 1910; 26.5 per cent by

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mining and manufacturing; 12.4 per cent by commerce and transportation; and 12.7 per cent by the professions and public service.

Three-fourths of the country is mountainous. The Alpine and Carso countries, representing 44 per cent of the total area, hold only 23 per cent of the arable land, while the Bohemian and Carpathian countries, representing 56 per cent of the total area, possess 77 per cent of the arable land. The fertility of the soil varies greatly, being highest in the Bohemian and lowest in the Carso countries. In 1913 arable land totaled 26,233,722 acres.

The combined yield of wheat, rye, barley, oats, and corn in 1913 totaled 9,092,725 metric tons, just about 10 per cent above the 10-year average for 1903–1912. In Galicia the harvest was below the average, but was higher everywhere else. The wheat crop was 59,626,000 bushels, averaging 19.9 bushels per acre; rye, 106,470,000 bushels, 21.9 to the acre; barley, 80,384,000 bushels, 29.8 per acre; oats, 184,456,000 bushels, 39.2 per acre; corn, 13,305,000 bushels, 18.9 per acre. The yield per acre was highest in Bohemia: Wheat, 31.5 bushels; rye, 29.8; barley, 41.3; oats, 54.6.

Barley is exported, but the yield of the other cereals is insufficient for domestic consumption and large quantities are imported annually, principally from Hungary.

Other important crops in 1913 were: Buckwheat, 80,382 metric tons, cultivated chiefly in Galicia and Styria; rape and colza, 13,832 tons, chiefly in Galicia and Bohemia; millet, 26,465 tons, Galicia and Carniola; legumes, 236,215 tons, chiefly in Galicia, Bohemia, and Moravia; poppy seed, 7,721 tons, in Bohemian countries and Lower Austria; linseed, 15,453 tons, and flax fiber, 22,261 tons, in Bohemia and Carpathian countries; hempseed, 10,092 tons, and hemp fiber, 13,336 tons, in Carpathian countries; fuller's thistles, 15,061 tons, in Upper Austria and Styria; tobacco, 6,211 tons, in Dalmatia and Galicia; hops, 8,665 tons, in Bohemia, Styria, and Galicia; potatoes, 11,552,942 tons; pumpkins, 44,552 tons, three-fourths in Styria; chickory, 154,198 tons, chiefly in Bohemia; sugar beets, 6,961,988 tons, in the Bohemian countries, Lower Austria, and Galicia; fodder beets, 4,354,086 tons; cabbage, 1,017,556 tons; clover seed, 13,230 tons; clover hay, 4,263,682 tons; meadow hay, 9,153,000 tons; Alpine hay, 480,330 tons.

The grape is cultivated chiefly in the Carso and the Alpine countries; the production of wine was 435,285 tons in 1913. The fruit crop was 757,035 tons; the nut crop, 5,178 tons. Figs, oranges, olives, and carobs are cultivated in Dalmatia.

For centuries agriculture has been of primary importance in the national economy of Hungary. Until the middle of the nineteenth century, however, its total production hardly exceeded the domestic consumption. Constant wars, lack of labor, and poor communications contributed to limit production. Cattle raising was of special importance. As late as the beginning of the nineteenth century the value of the animals exported exceeded the value of the exports of cereals, which were then estimated at less than $400,000 a year. In 1848 oppressive legislation was repealed, and the gradual improvement in the means of transportation stimulated agricultural production until Hungary became the granary of central Europe. In 1912 products of agriculture, forestry, and the fisheries to the value of $210,586,000 were exported. Hungarian agriculture, however,

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still suffers from the disproportion in the size of holdings; 40 per cent of the land is held by the nobility and large owners, whose estates exceed 1,400 acres in area, while 32 per cent of the land is divided into small holdings of less than 42 acres. Estates of 43 to 280 acres take up only 14 per cent of the land, and farms of 280 to 1,400 acres likewise make up but 14 per cent.

The production of wheat, rye, oats, barley, and corn—not including mixed grain—totaled 14,211,850 metric tons in 1912, valued at $531,483,000. The principal industrial plants showed the following yields, in metric tons: Tobacco, 76,342; hops, 1,820; hemp, 20,811 tons of seed and 49,864 tons of fiber; flax, 5,589 tons of seed and 12,586 tons of fiber. The potato crop was 5,973,478 tons, and that of sugar beets 4,839,710 tons. In Austria rye and oats are the principal crops; in Hungary, wheat and corn. In 1913 the yield of the five principal cereals totaled 14,603,481 metric tons, valued at $458,258,000.

The production of wine varies greatly from year to year. During the last 30 years it was lowest in 1892, when only 28,317,000 gallons were produced, and highest in 1908, with a yield of 235,411,000 gallons. In 1912 the production totaled 93,706,000 gallons, Hungary proper contributing 84.4 per cent and Croatia-Slavonia 15.6 per cent. The production was valued at $31,175,000. The production of must in 1913 was 116,550,000 gallons, valued at $31,371,000.

THE ANIMAL INDUSTRIES.

With the exception of cattle and sheep, the number of domestic animals in Austria has been slowly increasing during the last two decades. In that period the number of hogs was nearly doubled and the number of cows increased about one-sixth, but the number of all cattle was smaller in 1910 than in 1900. With the progress of the industrialization of the country the number of sheep is steadily decreasing. In 1910 only 2,428,000 sheep were found in the country, Dalmatia alone having more than a million, while the Bohemian countries, six times as large in area, had only 183,000 sheep. The imports of live stock, chiefly Hungarian, are largely in excess of the exports. Meats, lard, milk, butter, and cheese also show an excess of imports.

Poultry and game are important sources of food in Austria. Poultry raising is quite general, and enormous quantities of eggs are exported, principally to Germany. In 1910 Austria had 31,743,000 chickens, three-fourths of which were credited to the Bohemian and Carpathian countries. Geese are raised principally in the Bohemian countries, where 1,246,000 were found in 1910 out of a total of 1,990,000. The game killed in 1913 included 139,000 deer, 12,000 chamois, 2,500 boars, 1,608,000 hares and 260,000 rabbits, 1,453,000 partridges, 323,000 pheasants, 108,000 wild ducks, 97,000 quail, beside smaller numbers of other animals. Of the fur-bearing animals, 64,000 weasels, 42,000 foxes, 14,000 martens, 28,000 polecats, 1,000 otters, 5,500 badgers, 305 wild-cats, and 252,000 squirrels were taken.

Sericulture is carried on chiefly in southern Tyrol, in the coast lands and Dalmatia. In 1912 the production of cocoons reached 4,818,000 pounds, of which 81.1 per cent was produced in Tyrol,

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16.4 per cent in Gorizia and Gradisca, and the remainder in Dalmatia, Istria, and Carniola. In 1913 the production was only 3,628,000 pounds, and in 1914 it declined still further to 2,614,000 pounds. During the war sericulture is reported to have been introduced with success into Moravia.

The production of honey and wax varies greatly from year to year. In 1913 only 1,567 tons of honey and 260 tons of wax were produced, as against 5,801 tons of honey and 359 tons of wax in 1911.

In Hungary cattle raising provides large quantities for export. During the five years 1908–1912 Hungary exported on the average about 200,000 oxen, 63,000 cows, and 31,000 steers annually. The exports of horses averaged 56,000 head; the exports of hogs, 516,000 head. Meat, lard, bacon, milk and butter, poultry and eggs are also exported. In 1911 Hungary had 8,548,000 sheep, more than three times as many as Austria.

In Hungary proper in 1912 the inhabitants of 11,392 communes were engaged in rearing bees, which produced 2,679 metric tons of honey and 163 tons of wax, valued at $610,000.

The production of silk cocoons reached 4,400,000 pounds in 1909, of which 86.2 per cent was produced in Hungary proper and 13.8 per cent in Croatia-Slavonia. The production has since been declining. In 1912 a large quantity of mulberry leaves was ruined by frost, and the production of cocoons was reduced to 2,863,000 pounds.

WOOD AND WOOD PRODUCTS.

According to the official data for 1910, Austria-Hungary possesses 52,551,000 acres of forests, representing more than 31 per cent of the total area. The forests of Austria, covering an area of 24,138,000 acres, are 60 per cent conifers, 20 per cent deciduous trees, and 20 per cent mixed. The forests of Hungary extend over 22,113,000 acres. 26 per cent being oak, 52 per cent beech and other deciduous trees, and 22 per cent conifers. Bosnia and Herzegovina have 6,300,000 acres of forests. Under a careful administration the forests have been a source of considerable income, and large quantities of wood and wood products are exported annually. In 1913 these exports totaled 4,293,197 metric tons, valued at $68,541,000, as against imports of only 487,729 tons, valued at $9,539,000. The exports included 2,009,402 tons of hewn and sawed wood, valued at $35,067,000; logs, rough wood, and firewood, 2,142,134 tons, valued at $18,944,000; wood pulp, 92,560 tons, valued at $4,252,000; furniture of wood, 25,307 tons, valued at $5,340,000. Germany took 36 per cent of the exports, principally round logs and hewn timber; Italy, 28 per cent, chiefly sawed wood; Roumania 8, Switzerland 4.4, Russia 3.5 per cent. Small quantities of furniture and toys of wood were exported to the United States. Furniture of bent wood is a specialty of the Austro-Hungarian export trade.

MINING AND METALLURGY.

With the exception of platinum, all the principal industrial metals are found in Austria. The mineral wealth of the country was known to the ancient Celts and Romans, as shown by the remains of their mines. In the Middle Ages the silver mines of Bohemia were the chief source of the precious metal in central Europe, and the first silver

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coin named "dollar" was coined at Jachymov (Joachimsthal) in 1518. Since the Thirty Years' War, however, the mining of precious metals has declined and is now of minor importance. In 1913 the Bohemian mines produced 35,994 metric tons of gold ore and 19,937 tons of silver ore, and 284 kilos of gold and 54,433 kilos of silver were recovered. The gold mines appear to be exhausted. Coal and iron ore are now the most important mining products. True coal is mined chiefly in the Bohemian countries and Galicia, and to a small extent in the coast lands and Lower Austria. Brown coal or lignite is found in all parts of Austria except Salzburg and the coast lands, but the bulk of the production is yielded by Bohemia and Styria. These two countries also furnish most of the iron ores. The quicksilver mines of Idria in Carniola yielded 130,608 tons of ore in 1913, and 820 tons of mercury were produced.

Nickel, cobalt, and bismuth are found in four places but not mined. Some nickel compounds are recovered as by-products. Tin, uranium, and wolfram ores are found in small quantities in Bohemia. Copper ores are found chiefly in Salzburg; lead ores in Carinthia and Galicia; zinc ores in Carinthia, Tyrol, Galicia, and Bohemia. Antimony is found in Carinthia and Bohemia; manganese ore in Bukovina and Carniola; graphite is mined in the Bohemian countries, Styria, and Lower Austria; sulphur ores in Bukovina, Styria, and Bohemia; asphalt rock in Dalmatia and Tyrol. The value of the ores and minerals mined in 1913 aggregated $75,403,000, as against $47,329,000 in 1905. Valuable radium ores are found in Bohemia.

In addition to gold, silver, and mercury mentioned above, the furnace products of 1913 included 1,757,864 metric tons of pig iron, 3,684 tons of copper, 22,312 tons of lead, 305 tons of litharge, 19,500 tons of zinc, 11 tons of tin, 5 tons of uranium preparations, 897 tons of copper sulphate, 40 tons of iron sulphate, and 2,999 tons of mineral paints.

In Hungary gold and silver have been mined for centuries. Gold is found in Transylvania, at Nagybanya, and in upper Hungary; silver chiefly in the region of Stavnice (Selmeczbanya) in Slovakia. Lead and copper are recovered largely as a by-product in the working of gold and silver bearing ores. Antimony is found in the counties of Lipto, Szepes, Szatmar, and Vas; nickel and cobalt in the counties of Gemer, Hunyad, Varasd, and Maramaros; iron ores chiefly in Gemer; pyrites in Pressburg, Maramaros, Szepes, and Gemer counties; mineral colors in Pressburg and Tekov (Bars) counties. True coal is not plentiful; it is mined in Baranya, Tolna, and Orava (Arva) counties. Brown coal is found in greater quantities in the counties of Novohrad (Nograd), Borsod, Estergom, Hunyad. Asphalt rock is mined in Bihar. The production of 1912 included 1,302,405 metric tons of true coal, 8,284,871 tons of brown coal, 1,991,162 tons of iron ores, and 552,839 tons of pig iron, 2,852 kilos of gold and 10,782 kilos of silver, 1,605 tons of lead, 859 tons of antimony, 242 tons of copper, 85 tons of mercury, 103,809 tons of pyrites, 8,230 tons of manganese ores, 83 tons of sulphur, and 1,311 tons of sulphuric acid.

COAL AND LIGNITE.

The consumption of mineral fuel in the Monarchy averaged well over 55,000,000 tons a year in normal times, about three-fourths of the quantity being consumed in Austria and one-fourth in Hungary.

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Domestic production was large enough to supply 90 per cent or more of the consumption, the deficit being made good by importations from Germany and the United Kingdom.

In 1912 the Monarchy produced 51,754,148 metric tons of coal and lignite. The net imports of coal were 11,193,429 tons, and the net imports of coke and briquets represented about 823,705 tons of coal. Deducting the net exports of 7,407,520 tons of brown coal or lignite, the consumption of mineral fuel in 1912 may be estimated at 56,363,762 tons.

The production in 1912 included 17,100,295 metric tons of true coal and 34,653,853 tons of brown coal. Austria produced 15,797,890 tons of coal and 26,283,690 tons of lignite, the Bohemian countries alone producing 85 per cent of the total. Hungary mined 1,302,405 tons of coal and 8,284,871 tons of lignite. Bosnia and Herzegovina furnished 85,292 tons of lignite.

In 1913 Austria produced 16,459,889 metric tons of true coal and 27,378,332 tons of brown coal. The Bohemian countries furnished 14,271,408 tons of true coal and 23,017,096 tons of brown coal.

Hungary produced 1,319,918 metric tons of true coal and 8,854,133 tons of brown coal in 1913.

IRON ORE.

The production of iron ore in the Monarchy increased from 4,601,000 metric tons in 1909 to 5,068,248 tons in 1912. In the latter year Austria produced 2,926,686 tons, Hungary 1,991,162 tons, and Bosnia 150,400 tons. In 1913 the production of Austria increased to 3,039,324 tons. The Alpine countries furnished 2,030,654 tons, the bulk coming from Styria, and the Bohemian countries 988,831 tons. During the five years 1909–1913 the net imports of iron ore increased from 195,625 to 836,240 tons. In 1913 the imports totaled 942,311 metric tons, of which Sweden furnished 711,167 tons, Algeria 69,306, and Greece 56,610 tons.

In 1912 Austria produced 12,471 metric tons of manganese ore and Hungary 10,833 tons. In 1913 Austrian production increased to 16,540 tons, Bukovina supplying 15,709 and Carniola 831 tons. The net imports of manganese ore increased from 44,183 tons in 1909 to 66,728 tons in 1913. Nearly all the ore imported came from Russia and Asia.

The production of pig iron in the Monarchy increased from 2,044,000 metric tons in 1909 to 2,366,000 tons in 1912. In the latter year Austria produced 1,759,850 tons (in the Bohemian countries, Styria, and Trieste), Hungary 552,839 tons, and Bosnia 53,000 tons. The net imports of pig iron average about 100,000 tons a year. In 1913 Austria produced 1,757,864 tons, or slightly less than in 1912, and Hungary 622,952 tons.

MINERAL OILS.

During the five years 1909–1913 the exports of mineral oils from Austria-Hungary averaged 491,812 metric tons a year. The exports in 1913 were 493,962 tons, valued at $13,265,000. Germany took more than 56 per cent of the total, the remainder going principally to France, Switzerland, the Scandinavian countries, Belgium, and Italy. The imports were small, totaling 50,868 tons, valued at

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$2,184,000. One-half of the imports came from the United States and 45 per cent from Roumania.

In Austria petroleum is found in Galicia only, principally in the eastern part of the country, the field of Tustanowice being the largest producer. The production in 1912 was 1,144,133 metric tons, or 8,226,890 barrels of 42 gallons, valued at $11,619,000. In 1909 the production had been almost twice as large, but the value was much less. Only refined or semirefined oil is exported. The oil fields suffered considerably by the war.

The production of petroleum in Hungary is small, averaging about 2,500 tons a year. The production in 1912 was 2,793 metric tons, valued at $43,000. Valuable oil fields are reported to have been discovered recently in northern (Čechoslovák) Hungary.

In Galicia ozokerite or mineral wax is mined in the petroleum fields. The production in 1912 was 1,683 metric tons, valued at $500,000.

THE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.

According to the census of occupations of 1910 more than one-fourth (26.5 per cent) of the Austrian population engaged in useful pursuits were engaged in mining and manufacturing. The percentages for the several countries show great variations. In the Bohemian countries, Lower Austria, Vorarlberg, and the district of Trieste the industrial population exceeds 30 per cent, whereas in Galicia, Bukovina, and Dalmatia it is less than 8 per cent. Of the 17,034 factories existing in the country in 1913 more than one-half (8,918) were in the Bohemian countries; 3,495 in Lower Austria, and 2,668 in the other Alpine countries; 1,297 in the Carpathian, and 656 in the Carso countries. The number of factories in the principal classes of industries were as follows: Stones, earths, clay, glass, 3,082; textiles, 2,756; foods, beverages, tobacco, 2,370; wood and kindred industries, 1,669; metals, 1,644; machinery, tools, instruments, vehicles, 1,182; chemicals, 1,004; paper, 818; clothing and millinery, 791; power, heat, and light, 682; printing and the graphic industries, 560.

The textile industries are the most important of the manufacturing industries of Austria. According to the last census of occupations, 519,860 persons were engaged in these industries in 1910, of whom 425,508 were operatives and apprentices. The spinning and weaving of cotton is carried on principally in the Bohemian countries, Lower Austria, and Vorarlberg. The spinning mills had 4,864,453 spindles in 1913, and the consumption of cotton for the year ending August 31, 1913, was estimated at 837,065 bales, including 626,704 bales of American, 154,138 bales of East Indian, 32,910 bales of Egyptian, and 23,313 bales of other cotton. The rapid development of the industry has led to overproduction; in 1912 and 1913 the spinning mills had to curtail production considerably, and large quantities of cotton yarn were thrown upon the foreign markets, chiefly in Germany and the United Kingdom.

The principal centers of the woolen industry are the cities of Liberec (Reichenberg) in Bohemia and Brno (Brunn) in Moravia; the industry flourishes also in Silesia and Lower Austria. Hand weaving has declined largely in the last decade. Linen goods are manufactured principally in the Bohemian countries; jute fabrics in Lower Austria, Moravia, and Bohemia.

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In 1913 about 580,000 pounds of raw silk were produced in the Monarchy. In Austria the silk industry is largely controlled by Vienna firms, but the mills are located elsewhere, chiefly in Lower Austria and the Bohemian countries, with a few in Tyrol and Vorarlberg.

The manufacture of ribbons, embroidery, and laces is carried on largely as a home industry in the mountain districts of Vorarlberg and Bohemia.

Iron and steel mills are found principally in the Bohemian countries, Upper and Lower Austria, Styria, and Carinthia. Industrial and agricultural machinery, including railway steam engines, is manufactured in Vienna, Wiener Neustadt, Prague, Brno, and Trieste; railway cars in Vienna, Prague, and Graz; ships are built in Trieste and Pola, river boats at Linz. Wares of copper, tin, lead, and various metallic alloys are manufactured largely for export. Scientific instruments are made in Vienna and Prague; musical instruments in Vienna and Bohemia (Prague, Kralove Hradec, Kraslice, Schoenbach).

The manufacture of glass in Bohemia "is very old and has kept its leading position in the markets of the world up to the present day." Bohemian chinaware, manufactured chiefly in the vicinity of Carlsbad, enjoys a world-wide reputation.

Vienna and Prague are the chief centers of the boot and shoe industry. Leather gloves are an Austrian specialty and are largely exported. The paper industry is centralized in the Bohemian countries and Upper and Lower Austria. Chemicals are manufactured in Vienna and Bohemia; perfumery at Prague.

The food industries are of local importance, but sugar is exported to all parts of the world. Beer is likewise an important article of export, the Pilsen product being world known.

Until the sixties of the preceding century the industries of Hungary were largely confined to small shops working for the needs of the immediate vicinity only. They suffered considerably when the construction of railways made possible the importation of foreign factory products, principally Austrian. The economic crisis of 1873 also retarded the development of factory industries in Hungary, but since the eighties considerable progress has been made. The large exports of agricultural products brought in an abundance of capital; the Government aided the establishment of new factories, and foreign investors were attracted by the opportunities. According to the census of 1910, about one-sixth (16.3 per cent) of the population engaged in useful occupations were engaged in the manufacturing industries (exclusive of mining, but including the building trades and hotels and restaurants). Most of the factories are to be found between the Danube and the Tisza; they are rare on the left bank of the Tisza. Budapest and Pressburg are the chief industrial cities; Pest, Szepes, and Gemer the chief industrial counties.

The industries of foodstuffs, beverages, and tobacco are the most important. They include flour mills, sugar mills, distilleries, breweries, tobacco factories, manufacture of meat products, coffee surrogates, and sparkling wines. The number of persons engaged in these industries was 143,609 in 1900. The second place is held by the metal industries (128,213 persons in 1900). The other important industries are those of wood, chemicals, textiles, earths and

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stones, leather, clothing, printing, and paper. Wheat flour is the most important product. About 3,000,000 tons are milled annually. Other important products are sugar, tobacco, cigars, alcohol, pig iron, hewn wood, railway cars, bran, beer, bricks, structural iron, lumber, rails for railways. The textile industries supply only a small part of the domestic needs, and large quantities of textile fabrics have to be imported. The machinery industry shows better results, supplying about one-half of the domestic consumption.

SUGAR.

Beet sugar is an important article of export. The production of refined sugar in the Monarchy increased from 790,600 metric tons in 1904–5 to 1,241,000 tons in 1908–9 and 1,709,300 tons in 1912–13. The yield was much smaller in the campaign ending August 31, 1914, when 10,997,600 tons of beets yielded 1,688,300 tons of raw sugar. The production of sugar polarizing 99.3 or higher totaled 1,398,472 tons. The share of Austria was 1,036,301 tons; Hungary produced 358,645 and Bosnia 3,526 tons. The sugar mills of the Bohemian countries furnished 975,200 tons, equivalent to 94 per cent of the Austrian production and nearly 70 per cent of the total production of the Monarchy.

The exports of sugar in 1911 totaled only 605,533 metric tons; in 1913 the exports increased to 1,074,465 tons, valued at $60,331,000. The exports included 187,450 tons of sugar polarizing under 98, nearly all of it going to the United Kingdom, and 887,015 tons of refined sugar and all sugar polarizing 98 or higher. The United Kingdom, Turkey, British India, and Switzerland were the principal purchasers. Only 4,030 tons were exported to the United States.

Other sugars (milk sugar, coloring sugars, glucose, etc.) to the amount of 147 tons, valued at $28,000, were exported in 1913.

CLOTHING AND MILLINERY.

The exports of clothing, millinery, and made-up articles increased from $16,487,000 in 1909 to $20,481,000 in 1913. This class of goods, denominated in Austro-Hungarian trade statistics "Konfektionswaren," includes clothing, body linen, collars and cuffs, hair nets, hats and caps, fans, umbrellas, ornamental feathers, artificial flowers, and other millinery articles. Germany, the United Kingdom, Turkey, Egypt, the United States, and Russia, are the principal purchasers.

The manufacture of clothing is well distributed throughout the Monarchy, ready-made clothing being exported chiefly from Bohemia and Moravia. In 1913 the principal exports were: Hats and hat shapes, $5,274,000; ornamental feathers, prepared and manufactured, $3,591,000; women's clothing and millinery, $3,906,000; men's clothing, $2,184,000; body linen, $2,354,000; fezzes (oriental caps), $1,055,000; artificial flowers, $565,000. Fezzes are manufactured principally at Strakonice in Bohemia and exported to Mohammedan countries.

In the trade with the United States during the five years 1909–1913 the exports of made-up articles decreased from $2,170,000 to $968,000. The decreases were largest in the exports of clothing and artificial flowers, while the exports of hats increased from $29,000 to $302,000.

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The imports of made-up articles were valued at $5,144,000 in 1913. Nearly one-half of that total was represented by women's clothing. The imports from the United States were only $25,000.

LEATHER AND MANUFACTURES OF LEATHER.

The principal tanneries are in Lower Austria, Bohemia, Moravia, and Hungary, but large quantities of leather are imported annually. During the five years 1909–1913 the net imports of leather increased from $7,821,000 to $9,497,000. In manufactures of leather the exports exceed the imports, but the imports have been increasing faster than the exports, the net excess of exports decreasing from $7,382,000 in 1909 to $5,679,000 in 1913. The decrease was largely due to the increased importation of footwear, which rose from $870,000 to $5,101,000 during that period. In 1909 the exports of footwear exceeded the imports by $3,006,000; in 1913 the imports exceeded the exports by $47,000.

Gloves of leather—chiefly kid gloves—are an important article of export. Prague is the center of this industry. Gloves are made in shops large and small, but the manufacture is carried on in many other towns as a home industry. The leather is cut in Prague and sent by the manufacturers to agents in the towns who distribute it among the needlewomen. In 1913 gloves to the value of $6,064,000 were exported, more than two-thirds of the total going to the United Kingdom. The exports to the United States formerly were quite large; in 1913 they totaled only $236,000.

GLASS AND GLASSWARE.

According to the statistics of industrial accident insurance for 1912, Austria had in that year 996 establishments manufacturing glass and glassware. These establishments employed 1,028 officials and 43,347 operatives, of whom 7,129 were women. Of the total number of establishments, 844, employing 30,886 operatives, were in Bohemia. Bohemian glass "has been famous since the sixteenth century for the richness of the colors employed in its enameled decoration, and especially for its incised or engraved ornament in delicate patterns." Ornamental glass is not, however, the only product of the works, as the industry is largely specialized. Its products include such highly specialized articles as, for example, multicolored lamps for domestic altars in Mexico; glasses in various shapes of exotic animals for China; ampullas for oriental pilgrims to Mecca and Jerusalem; little glass "coffins" for the betel-nut chewers of Siam, etc.

In 1913 glass and glassware valued at $17,606,000 was exported, practically all coming from Austrian factories. The principal articles exported included hollow glass, plain, painted, gilt, silvered; bracelets and necklaces of glass, imitation gems, beads; glassware combined with precious and other materials. The exports of sheet and plate glass were small, amounting to only $793,000. Nearly one-fourth of the exports went to British India (bracelets and necklaces; beads), and nearly one-sixth to Germany (decorated hollow glass, etc.). The exports to the United States, valued at $1,205,000, included ornamental wares, hollow glass, buttons, beads, etc.

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EARTHENWARE AND CHINA.

During the five years 1909–1913 the exports of common pottery, earthen and china ware from Austria-Hungary averaged $4,013,000 a year. In 1913 the exports totaled $4,321,000, decorated chinaware (colored, edged, painted, printed, silvered, or gilded) representing $2,137,000, or nearly one-half of the total. The exports of white chinaware totaled $780,000. Germany, the United Kingdom, the United States, Italy, Canada, the Dutch East Indies, Roumania, and Australia were the principal purchasers. The exports to the United States, nearly all chinaware, were valued at $468,000.

The pottery industry is concentrated in the Carlsbad district of Bohemia, where all the principal raw materials are found in abundance. According to the Adressbuch der Keram-Industrie for 1913 there were in that year 77 potteries in Austria-Hungary. Of this number only 5 were in Hungary. Of the total of 72 china plants in Austria, 1 was located at Trieste, the remainder (71) being in Bohemia. The industry is largely specialized, one plant making only Turkish cups, for example, another only children's services, another milk pots, and so on.

BUTTONS.

Ivory buttons and buttons made from the South American tagua nut and from mother-of-pearl are Austrian specialties. The ivory button industry is localized in northern Bohemia, and the mother-of-pearl button trade chiefly in the suburbs of Vienna, in the districts of Caslav, Kolin, Kralove Hradec, Pardubice, and Podebrady in Bohemia, and in Moravia. The buttons are turned on a lathe, the operation being performed with great rapidity. According to the class of work, special sorts of shells are used, and shells are imported from different parts of the world. In Zirovnice, a Bohemian town in the hilly borderland, 180 tons of shells are used in the production of 360,000 gross of buttons. The introduction of button-making machines has strengthened the position of the industry by enabling it to increase its output and reduce the cost of production. Machines of American make have found a good market among the button makers.

In 1913, out of a total of 6,309 metric tons of shells imported, 2,546 tons came from the United States, chiefly from the Mississippi River districts. The exports of mother-of-pearl buttons in that year were valued at $3,420,000, the chief purchasers being Germany, the United Kingdom, Italy, Roumania, and British India. The exports to the United States were only $28,000. Beside buttons, many other ornamental articles are made of mother-of-pearl. The exports of buttons made of horn, bone, vegetable ivory, etc., were valued at $1,901,000 in 1913. More than one-half of the total went to the United Kingdom and Germany. The exports to the United States were $63,000.

Austria-Hungary exports also considerable quantities of buttons made of glass, iron and other metals.

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TOYS.

The making of toys is largely a home industry, in which whole families engage during the winter months. Some families make only birds, others confine themselves to dolls, etc., and by this special attention to particular toys the makers become experts in the manufacture of the article of their choice. Toys are made principally of wood, which is abundant in the mountain regions, but large quantities are made also of india rubber and paper, and smaller quantities of various metals, glass, china, and leather. The exports total about $1,500,000 per year. Exports to the United States in 1913 were valued at $428,000, nearly three-fourths of the total being wooden toys.

FOREIGN TRADE.

In 1867 a commercial union was formed between Austria and Hungary for 10 years and has since been repeatedly renewed. Trade between Austria and Hungary remained free, the Monarchy forming a united customs territory as against foreign countries.

In the official statistics of Austro-Hungarian foreign trade (Statistik des auswärtigen Handels), published by the Ministry of Commerce at Vienna, "special trade" and so-called "improvement traffic" (Veredlungsverkehr) are shown separately. Statistics of the special trade are given on pages 25 to 48. Special trade includes, in imports, all merchandise coming directly from abroad into the free traffic of the Monarchy (including domestic goods returned) as well as goods which originally had been imported temporarily with a view to reexportation but have been retained and the duty paid; in exports all domestic or nationalized goods which have definitely left the country, including foreign goods returned as well as goods temporarily exported with a view to reimportation which have remained abroad beyond the term during which they might have been reimported free of duty. The tables of the special trade show the trade of the Monarchy as a whole, the respective shares of Austria and Hungary not being distinguished. During the five years 1909–1913 the special trade of Austria-Hungary averaged $639,624,000 in imports and $513,400,000 in exports.

The improvement traffic includes goods temporarily imported or exported for the purpose of being improved in value by manufacture and then reexported or reimported, as the case may be, whether the work is to be done for the account of a native or a foreigner. The exports of Austro-Hungarian goods for improvement abroad are small (average for five years, 1909–1913, exports $105,000, reimports $153,000). The imports of foreign goods for improvement in Austria-Hungary are much larger, averaging, for the last five years of peace, $18,290,000 for imports and $37,114,000 for reexports. Large quantities of Swiss cotton goods are embroidered in Austria-Hungary; rice imported from the British and Dutch East Indies is cleaned and polished and reexported; enameled household and kitchen utensils are manufactured from imported sheet iron and rough wares; buttons and unfinished leather gloves are imported and finished gloves reexported, etc. The traffic is carried on chiefly with Switzerland and Germany.

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The total trade of Austria-Hungary, including special and improvement trade, with the respective shares of Austria and Hungary, is shown in the following table:

FOREIGN TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, 1909 TO 1913.

Classification.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
IMPORTS.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
Special trade	557,505,000	579,129,000	647,917,000	722,030,000	691,538,000
Improvement trade	15,211,000	15,607,000	16,950,000	22,956,000	20,728,000
Total	572,716,000	594,736,000	664,867,000	744,986,000	712,266,000
Share of Austria	477,281,000	506,992,000	557,717,000	624,080,000	597,354,000
Share of Hungary	95,435,000	87,744,000	107,150,000	120,906,000	114,912,000
EXPORTS.					
Special trade	470,730,000	490,977,000	488,074,000	554,973,000	562,247,000
Improvement trade	31,706,000	34,314,000	36,186,000	39,140,000	44,222,000
Total	502,436,000	525,291,000	524,260,000	594,113,000	606,469,000
Share of Austria	427,398,000	444,947,000	445,155,000	499,391,000	512,337,000
Share of Hungary	75,038,000	80,344,000	79,105,000	94,722,000	94,132,000

It will be seen from the table that five-sixths of the total foreign trade of the Monarchy is for the account of Austria, and only one-sixth for the account of Hungary. The share of Austria during the five-year period shown averaged 84 per cent in imports and 84.6 per cent in exports.

The commerce of Austria alone, including both special and improvement trade, amounted to $1,740,712,000 in 1912 and $1,691,078,000 in 1913. The trade for 1912, by classes and principal articles, is shown on pages 49 to 50. Austria imports chiefly foodstuffs and industrial raw materials and exports manufactured goods. In 1912 manufactures ready for consumption represented 60.2 per cent of the exports but only 30.2 per cent of the imports. The principal articles representing one-half of the total imports included cotton, flour, cattle, wool, coal, seeds, wheat, hides, corn, hogs, coffee, leather, eggs, cotton fabrics, wine, copper, rye, raw silk, and iron wares, in the order named. The principal articles exported, representing one-half of the total exports, were cotton fabrics, wood, woolen fabrics, sugar, iron wares, clothing, eggs, metal wares, leather goods, glass and glassware, mineral oils, hides, leather. Hungary furnished 32.2 per cent of the imports, chiefly breadstuffs and live stock, and took 39.1 per cent of the exports, principally manufactured articles.

The commerce of Hungary, including both special and improvement trade, averaged $743,380,000 during the five years 1908–1912. In 1912 the total trade was valued at $874,517,000, the imports being valued at $449,065,000 and the exports at $398,452,000. Austria furnished 71.6 per cent of the imports and took 73.7 per cent of the exports. It is admitted that the imports credited to Austria included goods produced elsewhere, and that the Hungarian exports included Austrian manufactures. Manufactured articles represented 63 per cent of the imports, while foodstuffs and industrial raw materials made up 77.7 per cent of the exports. The principal articles of Hungarian trade are shown in the tables on pages 51 to 53. The

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difference in the economic conditions of industrialized Austria and agricultural Hungary is strikingly illustrated by the fact that manufactures of cotton are at once the chief article of Austrian exports and Hungarian imports. In 1913 the trade of Hungary declined to $807,963,000, the imports being valued at $421,293,000 and the exports at $386,670,000.

The trade of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1913 totaled $68,773,000, the imports being valued at $40,741,000 and the exports at $28,032,000. Wood, live stock, and fruits represented one-half of the exports, while manufactured articles made up three-fourths of the imports. Hungary furnished 30 per cent of the imports and took 20 per cent of the exports. Austria does not publish any accounts of the trade with Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The trade of the Čechoslovák countries can not be shown separately. It is certain, however, that these countries receive by far the largest proportion of the Austro-Hungarian imports of industrial raw materials and furnish the bulk of the manufactured articles exported by the Monarchy. According to the reports of our consular officers for 1913, Bohemia alone, not including Moravia, Silesia, or Slovakia in Hungary, furnished above 40 per cent of all the Austro-Hungarian exports to the United States.

The values shown in Austro-Hungarian trade statistics represent frontier values, that is, cost of goods plus transportation and other charges to the frontier. The values are estimated annually by a commission of experts. The Hungarian estimates usually agree with those of the Austrian commission.

FOREIGN TRADE IN WAR TIME.

During the war the over-sea trade of Austria-Hungary was stopped by the blockade, while on the continent trade could be carried on only with the countries allied with the Monarchy and the five neutral countries, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. The great textile industries could no longer obtain sufficient supplies of raw materials, and all industries suffered from loss of workers, irregularities of transportation, and occasional lack of fuel. Production decreased and exports diminished, while large quantities of cloths, shoes, and other wares had to be imported for the army. The excess of imports over exports grew steadily, making necessary the exportation of gold and securities. Textiles, coal, cattle, foodstuffs, and footwear were the principal articles imported; sugar, chemicals, petroleum, wood, brown coal, wine, the principal articles exported. The exports of glassware and pottery dwindled gradually. In the autumn of 1917 it was reported that druggists were collecting bottles from their customers; and the shortage of pots, added to the shortage of food and coal, caused the housewives to complain that they had nothing to cook and nothing to cook it on or in.

Detailed reports of Austro-Hungarian trade during the war have not been published, but the trade reports of the neutral countries throw some light on the general trend of the trade. In 1913 Swiss imports from the Monarchy exceeded the exports nearly 40 per cent; during the war years the exports were twice to five times as large as the imports. In 1913 Swiss exports to Austria-Hungary were valued at $15,452,000 and the imports at $21,277,000; in 1916 the exports

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rose to $43,995,000, while the imports declined to $8,494,000. The chief articles exported to Austria-Hungary were silk and silk fabrics, cotton cloth, cheese, cows, boots and shoes, rags. In the trade of Sweden with the Monarchy the exports rose from $860,000 in 1913 to $12,949,000 in 1915 and $11,683,000 in 1916, while the imports were only $1,239,000 in 1916, or about the same as in 1913, when they stood at $1,236,000. The chief articles of exports were boots and shoes, cream separators, textile fabrics, fish and meats, copper sulphate, and copper. Norway's exports to Austria-Hungary, amounting to only $484,000 in 1913, increased to $3,820,000 in 1915, the principal articles exported being fish and fish oil. Our own trade with Austria-Hungary, valued at $42,829,000 in the fiscal year 1914, decreased to $11,033,000 in 1915 and $1,577,000 in 1916, and has since ceased altogether.

The following table, taken from the Pester Lloyd, shows the quantities and values of Austro-Hungarian foreign trade (special trade and improvement traffic combined) during the years 1913–1918:

FOREIGN TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, 1913 TO 1918.

Years.	Quantity in millions of metric tons.		Value in millions of crowns.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
1913	23.0	11.8	3,509	2,988
1914	17.2	14.2	2,981	2,245
1915	13.7	9.7	3,850	1,426
1916	18.3	9.2	6,085	1,623
1917	15.9	7.2	4,405	1,515
1918 (seven months)	9.1	3.8	2,253	843

Since 1914 the exports have been declining steadily in quantity; their value for the years 1915–1917 averaged only a little more than one-half of the prewar value for 1913. The imports for the years 1914–1917, compared with the returns for 1913, averaged nearly 30 per cent less in quantity but almost 24 per cent higher in value. The foreign prices were undoubtedly higher than in peace times and were increased still further by the fall of Austro-Hungarian exchange, due to the enormous excess of imports over exports and the repeated issues of irredeemable paper currency. In Switzerland the crown was quoted at a discount of 13.3 per cent at the end of 1914, 36.2 per cent at the end of 1915, 49.2 per cent at the end of 1916, and 50 per cent at the end of 1917. In the first four months of 1918 the discount was below 50 per cent but increased rapidly during the following months until it reached 70 per cent toward the end of the year. As the par value of the crown is $0.203, the exchange value of the crown was about 6 cents in the Swiss market at the end of 1918. In Amsterdam the crown was quoted at a discount of 69.7 per cent on December 28, 1918; in Copenhagen at a discount of 66.0 per cent on December 30, and in Stockholm at a discount of 70.2 per cent on December 30, 1918.

The war has broken up Austria-Hungary into the three States of Bohemia, Hungary, and Austria, which had formed the Monarchy by a personal union four centuries ago. The border Provinces are to

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form parts of Poland, Roumania, Yugoslavia, and Italy. But while the war has changed the political complexion of the territory of the former Monarchy it has not changed its natural resources. Cotton, copper, and other raw materials will still have to be imported; the agricultural regions will export cereals, meats, and live stock, and import textile fabrics and other manufactures; the industrial regions are already making plans for an intensive production as soon as raw materials can be obtained. The transition period will doubtless be difficult, and credits will have to be obtained abroad, as the countries are almost bare of exportable products; in Bohemia, for example, sugar and matches appear to be the only products that can be exported on a larger scale just now to pay for imports. But when the economic conditions have been stabilized it may be expected that foreign trade will develop substantially along the prewar lines, although there may be changes in its direction. What effect the proposed nationalization of mines, large landed estates, and certain industries will have on the foreign trade only the future can tell.

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STATISTICS OF AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN TRADE.

FOREIGN TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

TOTAL FOREIGN TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN AND DESTINATION, 1912 AND 1913.

Countries.	1912			1913		
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
Germany	$285,290,000	$226,171,000	$511,461,000	$277,304.000	$225,472,000	$502,776,000
United Kingdom	49,809,000	52,247,000	102,056,000	44,146,000	54,774,000	98,920,000
United States	70,761,000	12,969,000	83,730,000	65,637,000	14,258,000	79,895,000
Italy	32,817,000	48,598,000	81,415,000	34,316,000	43,765,000	78,081,000
British East Indies	40,461,000	12,877,000	53,338,000	47,339,000	19,219,000	66,558,000
Russia in Europe	46,173,000	18,395,000	64,568,000	40,712,000	20,803,000	61,515,000
Roumania	20,735,000	27,287,000	48,022,000	19,363,000	23,286,000	42,649,000
France	24,319,000	17,107,000	41,426,000	23,033,000	16,289,000	39,322,000
Switzerland	18,497,000	23,809,000	42,306,000	15,887,000	22,640,000	38,527,000
Turkey in Europe	8,529,000	19,809,000	28,338,000	7,731,000	19,181,000	26,912,000
Hamburg	43,000	19,003,000	19,046,000	139,000	19,937,000	20,076,000
Turkey in Asia	6,327,000	6,889,000	13,216,000	6,010,000	11,135,000	17,145,000
Brazil	16,242,000	2,804,000	19,046,000	13,913,000	2,438,000	16,351,000
Serbia	8,277,000	8,735,000	17,012,000	4,615,000	10,817,000	15,432,000
Argentina	9,563,000	4,461,000	14,024,000	9,844,000	4,601,000	14,445,000
Belgium	11,460,000	5,316,000	16,776,000	8,537,000	5,554,000	14,091,000
Egypt	7,384,000	6,483,000	13,867,000	7,063,000	6,751,000	13,814,000
Netherlands	5,217,000	5,926,000	11,143,000	5,738,000	6,994,000	12,732,000
Greece	4,519,000	4,751,000	9,270,000	4,338,000	6,047,000	10,385,000
Bulgaria	3,203,000	9,605,000	12,808,000	2,222,000	6,059,000	8,281,000
Sweden	3,967,000	1,826,000	5,793,000	6,151,000	2,090,000	8,241,000
Dutch East Indies	7,657,000	697,000	8,354,000	5,230,000	616,000	5,846,000
Chile	4,539,000	473,000	5,012,000	4,733,000	397,000	5,130,000
Denmark	2,587,000	1,789,000	4,376,000	3,375,000	1,627,000	5,002,000
Spain	3,036,000	1,557,000	4,593,000	3,333,000	1,510,000	4,843,000
British Africa	5,432,000	236,000	5,668,000	4,212,000	250,000	4,462,000
Japan	1,698,000	2,344,000	4,042,000	2,042,000	2,394,000	4,436,000
China	3,875,000	708,000	4,583,000	2,764,000	1,251,000	4,015,000
Norway	1,932,000	733,000	2,665,000	2,444,000	903,000	3,347,000
Australia	1,634,000	384,000	2,018,000	2,734,000	418,000	3,152,000
America, n. e. s.	2,438,000	850,000	3,288,000	2,339,000	791,000	3,130,000
Central America	2,792,000	72,000	2,864,000	2,757,000	97,000	2,854,000
Algeria	1,142,000	463,000	1,605,000	1,311,000	505,000	1,816,000
Oceania, n. e. s.	1,770,000	104,000	1,874,000	1,641,000	102,000	1,743,000
British West Indies	1,725,000	11,000	1,736,000	1,644,000	21,000	1,665,000
Cuba and Porto Rico	938,000	330,000	1,268,000	1,112,000	361,000	1,473,000
Canada	241,000	571,000	812,000	577,000	833,000	1,410,000
Montenegro	244,000	556,000	800,000	261,000	1,043,000	1,304,000
Africa, n. e. s.	899,000	186,000	1,085,000	967,000	179,000	1,146,000
Bremen	3,000	1,045,000	1,048,000	3,000	1,129,000	1,132,000
Portugal	218,000	1,672,000	1,890,000	281,000	768,000	1,049,000
Tunis	305,000	269,000	574,000	561,000	303,000	864,000
Morocco	48,000	466,000	514,000	33,000	817,000	850,000
Persia	87,000	546,000	633,000	68,000	750,000	818,000
German Africa	151,000	512,000	663,000	140,000	637,000	777,000
Tripoli	5,000	738,000	743,000	3,000	739,000	742,000
Mexico	503,000	495,000	998,000	364,000	355,000	719,000
Asia, n. e. s.	486,000	91,000	577,000	480,000	136,000	616,000
Russia in Asia	276,000	145,000	421,000	366,000	167,000	533,000
British possessions in the Mediterranean	63,000	591,000	654,000	58,000	388,000	446,000
Trieste and Fiume	88,000	1,041,000	1,129,000	10,000	379,000	389,000
Colombia	190,000	79,000	269,000	191,000	137,000	328,000
Peru	15,000	151,000	166,000	32,000	134,000	166,000
Goods returned	1,419,000	.....	1,419,000	1,434,000	.....	1,434,000
Total	722,030,000	554,973,000	1,277,003,000	691,538,000	562,247,000	1,253,785,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Principal Articles in Import Trade of Austria-Hungary, 1909 to 1913.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Cotton, raw	$51,661,000	$57,261,000	$61,006,000	$64,392,000	$65,677,000
Coal	34,026,000	31,483,000	34,497,000	39,076,000	48,107,000
Wool, raw, combed, and waste	34,429,000	32,456,000	29,720,000	32,880,000	30,977,000
Hides and skins	13,224,000	16,538,000	22,064,000	20,758,000	23,671,000
Machinery (other than electrical)	16,337,000	18,341,000	20,371,000	25,594,000	19,917,000
Oilseeds	13,163,000	16,086,000	18,321,000	19,089,000	18,748,000
Coffee, raw and roasted	11,819,000	14,654,000	18,805,000	20,710,000	18,275,000
Corn	2,983,000	1,715,000	6,116,000	21,453,000	17,068,000
Fruits and nuts	10,896,000	12,468,000	14,843,000	15,316,000	16,402,000
Leather	11,855,000	13,395,000	14,690,000	14,784,000	15,290,000
Eggs: yolks and whites of eggs	9,218,000	9,571,000	11,669,000	13,515,000	13,907,000
Copper	9,071,000	9,483,000	10,587,000	16,884,000	12,812,000
Manufactures of iron	9,622,000	9,929,000	11,522,000	13,802,000	12,350,000
Silk, raw, dyed; yarn and twist	11,212,000	11,951,000	11,844,000	12,706,000	12,227,000
Tobacco, raw	9,515,000	10,380,000	11,086,000	11,891,000	11,731,000
Books and periodicals	10,284,000	10,268,000	10,868,000	11,093,000	11,284,000
Woolen yarn	10,830,000	13,496,000	10,596,000	11,449,000	9,583,000
Flax and flax tow	5,545,000	6,278,000	7,286,000	10,087,000	8,463,000
Woolen fabrics	8,281,000	9,422,000	10,119,000	9,662,000	8,303,000
Jute and jute tow	4,334,000	4,013,000	5,846,000	5,946,000	8,028,000
Silk fabrics	7,235,000	8,972,000	8,910,000	8,553,000	7,945,000
Iron ores	1,595,000	1,434,000	2,288,000	3,511,000	5,547,000
Rice	5,668,000	5,507,000	5,878,000	5,755,000	5,448,000
Furs, prepared, made up or not	4,781,000	5,387,000	4,656,000	6,054,000	5,362,000
Coke	3,578,000	3,364,000	3,518,000	4,782,000	5,108,000
Boots and shoes of leather	870,000	1,303,000	2,324,000	4,104,000	5,101,000
Nitrate of soda	3,637,000	3,528,000	2,971,000	4,900,000	5,099,000
India rubber and gutta-percha, raw	5,024,000	8,220,000	5,324,000	6,173,000	4,993,000
Electrotechnical articles	2,638,000	3,172,000	4,064,000	5,447,000	4,967,000
Vegetables, fresh	5,042,000	4,396,000	4,888,000	4,839,000	4,926,000
Agricultural machinery	2,182,000	3,131,000	3,536,000	4,906,000	4,661,000
Manufactures of paper	4,184,000	4,618,000	4,228,000	4,678,000	4,617,000
Cotton yarn	5,605,000	5,954,000	5,274,000	5,054,000	4,245,000
Gums and resins	3,649,000	4,720,000	5,043,000	5,168,000	4,161,000
Automobiles and automobile motors	2,481,000	3,259,000	3,862,000	4,329,000	4,152,000
Manufactures of india rubber and guttapercha	4,068,000	4,836,000	5,039,000	5,132,000	4,125,000
Tin: alloys of tin with antimony, lead, and zinc	3,101,000	3,577,000	4,536,000	4,878,000	4,106,000
Precious and semiprecious stones	4,062,000	4,063,000	4,672,000	4,671,000	4,062,000
Sugar-beet seed	1,787,000	2,281,000	8,855,000	5,241,000	3,916,000
Butter	476,000	808,000	1,744,000	2,873,000	3,888,000
Pig iron	2,275,000	1,843,000	1,927,000	5,106,000	3,819,000
Wares of gold	3,679,000	3,746,000	4,692,000	4,978,000	3,708,000
Zinc: alloys of zinc with lead or tin	3,031,000	3,493,000	4,281,000	4,956,000	3,684,000
Wood, hewn or sawn	3,429,000	3,090,000	2,984,000	4,529,000	3,659,000
Coal-tar dyes	2,899,000	3,529,000	3,533,000	3,609,000	3,623,000
Prepared medicines and bandages	675,000	799,000	829,000	858,000	3,513,000
Manufactures of wood	2,559,000	3,070,000	3,631,000	4,087,000	3,474,000
Fish and seal oil	1,784,000	1,911,000	1,967,000	2,313,000	3,120,000
Clothing and millinery	2,450,000	2,637,000	3,090,000	3,187,000	3,094,000
Cattle	211,000	374,000	1,856,000	3,657,000	3,026,000
Paper and card board	2,112,000	2,352,000	2,556,000	2,904,000	2,853,000
Watches and clocks	3,049,000	3,502,000	3,539,000	3,501,000	2,844,000
Bran	1,987,000	937,000	3,370,000	4,374,000	2,821,000
Semisilken fabrics	2,440,000	2,910,000	3,034,000	2,996,000	2,792,000
Feathers, ornamental, not dressed	1,904,000	1,977,000	2,641,000	3,168,000	2,742,000
Spices	1,916,000	1,844,000	2,250,000	2,488,000	2,675,000
Scientific instruments	1,969,000	1,931,000	2,042,000	2,459,000	2,669,000
Cheese	1,850,000	2,293,000	2,397,000	2,508,000	2,540,000
Fish, fresh	1,795,000	1,929,000	2,149,000	2,260,000	2,446,000
Clover seed	718,000	806,000	1,571,000	1,410,000	2,374,000
Phosphate rock	1,828,000	2,117,000	1,822,000	1,982,000	2,359,000
Hair and bristles	2,739,000	2,887,000	2,703,000	2,978,000	2,341,000
Fish, salted or smoked	1,870,000	2,167,000	2,399,000	1,955,000	2,240,000
Hemp and hemp tow	2,186,000	1,979,000	2,658,000	2,223,000	2,233,000
Dynamos and electric motors	1,580,000	2,151,000	2,387,000	2,648,000	2,061,000
Wood, rough	2,272,000	2,062,000	2,569,000	2,597,000	2,022,000
Wheat	31,608,000	11,338,000	4,666,000	856,000	647,000
Rye	2,046,000	830,000	1,614,000	1,109,000	186,000
All other articles	107,676,000	116,907,000	139,094,000	148,699,000	136,724,000
Total	557,505,000	579,129,000	647,917,000	722,030,000	691,538,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913.

ALGERIA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$975,000	$861,000	$1,042,000	$1,142,000	$1,311,000
Coloring earths, raw	223,000	147,000	227,000	188,000	408,000
Seaweed, esparto grass, piassava, bast, reed	190,000	194,000	185,000	231,000	272,000
Phosphate rock	332,000	304,000	240,000	270,000	245,000
Cork	159,000	97,000	170,000	166,000	165,000
Figs, dried	37,000	83,000	139,000	189,000	97,000
All other articles	34,000	36,000	81,000	88,000	124,000

ARGENTINA.

Total imports	$4,346,000	$4,041,000	$6,234,000	$9,563,000	$9,844,000
Wool	2,254,000	1,807,000	1,999,000	2,892,000	2,938,000
Corn	41,000	118,000	122,000	3,178,000	2,807,000
Linseed	1,250,000	958,000	1,204,000	1,737,000	2,177,000
Quebracho extract	380,000	605,000	825,000	590,000	681,000
Hides and skins	206,000	177,000	573,000	577,000	540,000
Fish and seal oil	21,000	62,000	233,000	23,000	230,000
Quebracho wood	58,000	82,000	162,000	144,000	185,000
Bran	64,000	2,000	54,000	166,000	69,000
Tallow	8,000	23,000	405,000	88,000	38,000
All other articles	64,000	207,000	657,000	168,000	179,000

AUSTRALIA.

Total imports	$1,701,000	$1,675,000	$2,025,000	$1,634,000	$2,734,000
Wool	1,289,000	1,073,000	1,635,000	913,000	1,845,000
Lead ores				91,000	369,000
Copra	170,000	249,000	43,000	132,000	86,000
Phosphate rock	128,000	191,000	83,000	167,000	67,000
Coconut oil, solid	38,000	5,000	19,000	26,000	51,000
All other articles	76,000	157,000	245,000	305,000	316,000

BELGIUM.

Total imports	$10,060,000	$9,876,000	$10,194,000	$11,460,000	$8,537,000
Wool	5,110,000	4,477,000	4,460,000	4,884,000	3,645,000
Precious and semiprecious stones	710,000	710,000	812,000	812,000	710,000
Silk, artificial	702,000	530,000	619,000	765,000	461,000
Small arms	447,000	515,000	545,000	628,000	418,000
Photographic paper	133,000	145,000	209,000	164,000	261,000
Sheet and plate glass	117,000	159,000	389,000	303,000	224,000
Woolen yarn	347,000	500,000	221,000	296,000	212,000
Automobiles	25,000	65,000	147,000	141,000	156,000
Chicory root, dried	87,000	194,000	132,000	563,000	152,000
Leather	73,000	114,000	118,000	167,000	137,000
India-rubber tires	56,000	151,000	199,000	153,000	121,000
All other articles	2,253,000	2,316,000	2,343,000	2,584,000	2,020,000

BRAZIL.

Total imports	$10,748,000	$12,018,000	$15,301,000	$16,242,000	$13,913,000
Coffee	8,717,000	9,680,000	13,057,000	14,470,000	12,101,000
Tobacco	505,000	683,000	1,208,000	819,000	1,140,000
Hides and skins	42,000	167,000	275,000	316,000	198,000
Cocoa	518,000	471,000	352,000	203,000	191,000
Carnauba wax	62,000	61,000	83,000	96,000	109,000
India rubber	814,000	815,000	224,000	205,000	34,000
All other articles	90,000	141,000	102,000	133,000	140,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

BRITISH AFRICA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$2,307,000	$3,838,000	$3,146,000	$5,432,000	$4,222,000
Palm kernels	1,487,000	2,935,000	2,225,000	3,272,000	2,618,000
India rubber and gutta-percha	63,000	4,000	7,000	900,000	674,000
Wattle bark and other tanning materials	168,000	188,000	197,000	261,000	224,000
Palm oil	315,000	324,000	351,000	243,000	140,000
Fish and seal oil	13,000	6,000	71,000	268,000	137,000
Wood	113,000	127,000	101,000	180,000	117,000
Copra	39,000	150,000	7,000	29,000	110,000
All other articles	109,000	104,000	187,000	279,000	192,000

BRITISH EAST INDIES.

Total imports	$35,224,000	$43,450,000	$44,607,000	$40,461,000	$47,339,000
Cotton	8,496,000	16,465,000	12,652,000	8,275,000	12,150,000
Hides and skins	6,014,000	6,328,000	8,744,000	8,014,000	9,295,000
Jute	4,280,000	3,939,000	5,637,000	5,835,000	7,739,000
Rice	4,332,000	4,123,000	4,180,000	3,948,000	3,609,000
Copra	2,005,000	2,420,000	1,697,000	2,660,000	3,141,000
Sesame	2,405,000	2,303,000	2,552,000	2,053,000	2,081,000
Tin	1,268,000	1,306,000	1,655,000	1,858,000	1,859,000
Oilseeds, n. e. s.	71,000	380,000	832,000	922,000	1,265,000
Rape and colza seed	1,022,000	523,000	772,000	458,000	905,000
Pepper	305,000	407,000	550,000	711,000	629,000
Linseed	737,000	737,000	1,178,000	837,000	606,000
Phosphate rock	----------	----------	136,000	167,000	571,000
Coffee	473,000	790,000	819,000	906,000	563,000
Gums and resins	560,000	755,000	470,000	624,000	507,000
India rubber and gutta-percha	230,000	114,000	152,000	371,000	251,000
All other articles	3,026,000	2,860,000	2,581,000	2,822,000	2,129,000

BRITISH WEST INDIES.

Total imports	$303,000	$670,000	$1,133,000	$1,725,000	$1,644,000
Cocoa	33,000	422,000	804,000	1,203,000	1,053,000
Coffee	45,000	93,000	142,000	190,000	224,000
Bituminous earths; asphalt bitumen	54,000	24,000	39,000	158,000	215,000
All other articles	171,000	131,000	148,000	174,000	152,000

BULGARIA.

Total imports	$2,047,000	$2,018,000	$2,521,000	$3,203,000	$2,222,000
Corn	----------	----------	61,000	1,336,000	755,000
Eggs	187,000	251,000	408,000	612,000	649,000
Tobacco	225,000	447,000	506,000	340,000	297,000
Bran	190,000	137,000	515,000	268,000	93,000
Lambskins	221,000	273,000	229,000	79,000	72,000
Wheat	687,000	244,000	18,000	1,000	----------
All other articles	537,000	666,000	784,000	567,000	356,000

CANADA.

Total imports	$72,000	$119,000	$180,000	$241,000	$577,000
Asbestos	15,000	36,000	37,000	182,000	174,000
Agricultural machinery	28,000	42,000	81,000	46,000	166,000
All other articles	29,000	49,000	62,000	13,000	237,000

CHILE.

Total imports	$3,483,000	$3,408,000	$2,710,000	$4,539,000	$4,733,000
Nitrate of soda	3,356,000	3,261,000	2,467,000	4,354,000	4,497,000
Borax; borate of calcium	102,000	105,000	159,000	139,000	143,000
Honey	12,000	15,000	34,000	38,000	55,000
All other articles	13,000	27,000	50,000	8,000	38,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

CHINA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$2,515,000	$3,026,000	$3,783,000	$3,875,000	$2,764,000
Tea	1,290,000	1,223,000	1,481,000	1,595,000	888,000
Sesame	319,000	295,000	628,000	455,000	322,000
Feathers	237,000	282,000	435,000	281,000	269,000
Hides and skins	75,000	172,000	108,000	98,000	251,000
Human hair	188,000	305,000	230,000	254,000	219,000
Zinc ores				117,000	145,000
Cotton	3,000	12,000	239,000	43,000	85,000
Plaited wares	136,000	233,000	244,000	99,000	50,000
Essential oils	32,000	33,000	49,000	68,000	48,000
All other articles	235,000	471,000	369,000	865,000	487,000

CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

Total imports	$1,221,000	$1,147,000	$960,000	$938,000	$1,112,000
Tobacco	920,000	685,000	524,000	561,000	600,000
Coffee	148,000	274,000	239,000	202,000	271,000
Cigars	136,000	163,000	170,000	122,000	140,000
Cattle hides			3,000	10,000	55,000
Honey	14,000	16,000	16,000	34,000	32,000
All other articles	3,000	9,000	8,000	9,000	14,000

DENMARK.

Total imports	$725,000	$792,000	$1,607,000	$2,587,000	$3,375,000
Butter	288,000	421,000	1,104,000	2,031,000	2,788,000
Hides and skins	227,000	138,000	157,000	212,000	274,000
Machinery, agricultural and industrial	10,000	11,000	15,000	29,000	29,000
All other articles	200,000	222,000	331,000	315,000	284,000

DUTCH EAST INDIES.

Total imports	$4,908,000	$5,796,000	$7,692,000	$7,657,000	$5,230,000
Tobacco	3,083,000	3,261,000	2,742,000	3,947,000	3,182,000
Coffee	447,000	479,000	375,000	605,000	780,000
Copra	920,000	1,548,000	3,485,000	2,083,000	449,000
Rice	24,000	54,000	203,000	99,000	175,000
Cocoa butter	1,000	1,000	7,000	42,000	90,000
Spices	57,000	60,000	86,000	100,000	87,000
India rubber and gutta-percha	57,000	95,000	45,000	71,000	83,000
Tin	71,000	54,000	151,000	61,000	68,000
All other articles	218,000	235,000	598,000	649,000	316,000

EGYPT.

Total imports	$8,608,000	$6,848,000	$7,190,000	$7,384,000	$7,063,000
Cotton	7,436,000	5,441,000	5,766,000	5,792,000	5,838,000
Cigarettes	362,000	407,000	483,000	402,000	430,000
Hides and skins	119,000	300,000	169,000	235,000	303,000
Onions and garlic	232,000	172,000	268,000	268,000	197,000
Cotton seed	120,000	101,000	219,000	458,000	131,000
All other articles	339,000	427,000	285,000	229,000	164,000

FRANCE.

Total imports	$19,762,000	$22,812,000	$22,821,000	$24,319,000	$23,033,000
Silk fabrics	2,717,000	3,190,000	2,825,000	2,674,000	3,228,000
Silk, raw, dyed, yarn, and twist	2,229,000	2,275,000	2,135,000	1,906,000	2,256,000
Wool	984,000	1,193,000	1,171,000	1,393,000	1,156,000
Wine	1,061,000	1,226,000	1,243,000	1,356,000	1,114,000
Leather	928,000	815,000	1,066,000	1,070,000	868,000
Clothing and millinery	723,000	842,000	874,000	903,000	820,000
Pearls, not set	305,000	305,000	355,000	812,000	812,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

FRANCE—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Precious and semiprecious stones	$710,000	$710,000	$812,000	$812,000	$710,000
Clover seed	144,000	121,000	324,000	70,000	509,000
Ornamental feathers, raw	267,000	476,000	537,000	660,000	558,000
Cotton fabrics	468,000	509,000	555,000	558,000	509,000
Perfumery and cosmetics	97,000	116,000	111,000	398,000	459,000
Automobiles	505,000	593,000	705,000	553,000	430,000
Furs, prepared or made up	266,000	406,000	290,000	408,000	410,000
Prepared medicines	42,000	79,000	88,000	86,000	363,000
Ferrosilicon, ferromanganese, and other alloys of iron	71,000	44,000	133,000	499,000	343,000
Fruits and nuts	187,000	186,000	295,000	281,000	337,000
Mother-of-pearl and other mussel shells	17,000	29,000	36,000	221,000	302,000
Resin	267,000	314,000	484,000	661,000	294,000
Saffron	156,000	194,000	189,000	198,000	264,000
Manufactures of india rubber	456,000	615,000	457,000	390,000	259,000
Wares of meerschaum, lava, celluloid	50,000	79,000	149,000	186,000	256,000
Woolen yarn	548,000	344,000	137,000	198,000	247,000
Wares of base metals	218,000	246,000	282,000	293,000	244,000
Hats	266,000	289,000	286,000	269,000	238,000
Woolen fabrics	184,000	193,000	197,000	239,000	213,000
Paper wares	168,000	186,000	189,000	206,000	199,000
Hides and skins	134,000	200,000	161,000	229,000	172,000
Turpentine, turpentine oil	77,000	125,000	195,000	119,000	157,000
Spirits, distilled	198,000	150,000	246,000	145,000	151,000
Canned foods	91,000	116,000	140,000	156,000	149,000
Iron wares	399,000	418,000	291,000	261,000	141,000
Olive oil	135,000	179,000	116,000	144,000	123,000
Nickel	252,000	86,000	92,000	367,000	123,000
All other articles	4,442,000	5,968,000	5,655,000	5,598,000	4,559,000

GERMANY.

Total imports	$216,674,000	$234,029,000	$256,346,000	$285,290,000	$277,304,000
Coal	28,917,000	27,294,000	29,980,000	35,265,000	42,700,000
Wool	18,396,000	17,478,000	15,760,000	17,350,000	17,068,000
Leather	7,382,000	9,064,000	9,750,000	10,294,000	10,831,000
Books and periodicals	9,455,000	9,424,000	10,009,000	10,207,000	10,435,000
Manufactures of iron	7,110,000	7,568,000	8,937,000	11,021,000	10,202,000
Hides and skins	2,480,000	4,019,000	5,071,000	5,109,000	5,296,000
Cotton, raw	6,595,000	6,370,000	6,434,000	6,387,000	4,986,000
Coke	3,292,000	3,199,000	3,377,000	4,578,000	4,773,000
Furs	4,187,000	4,551,000	3,997,000	5,094,000	4,375,000
Woolen yarn	4,372,000	5,597,000	4,779,000	5,106,000	4,215,000
Manufactures of paper	3,648,000	3,983,000	3,619,000	3,985,000	3,914,000
Silk, raw, dyed, yarn, and twist	3,121,000	3,395,000	3,598,000	4,004,000	3,735,000
Boots and shoes of leather	511,000	793,000	1,404,000	2,828,000	3,688,000
Zinc and its alloys	2,882,000	3,307,000	4,180,000	4,769,000	3,582,000
Wares of base metals	2,643,000	3,044,000	3,584,000	3,922,000	3,496,000
Coal-tar dyes	2,771,000	3,406,000	3,390,000	3,474,000	3,486,000
Silk fabrics	2,935,000	3,753,000	3,870,000	3,661,000	3,377,000
Woolen fabrics	3,434,000	3,536,000	3,826,000	3,747,000	3,229,000
Cotton fabrics	2,898,000	3,498,000	3,766,000	4,129,000	3,362,000
Gold and platinum wares	3,305,000	3,251,000	3,922,000	4,064,000	3,069,000
Copper	1,625,000	1,917,000	2,423,000	3,157,000	2,711,000
Thomas slag, ground	1,798,000	1,812,000	1,688,000	2,525,000	2,686,000
Electrotechnical articles, n. e. s	1,129,000	1,400,000	1,707,000	2,427,000	2,484,000
Prepared medicines	408,000	496,000	515,000	556,000	2,464,000
India-rubber wares	2,388,000	2,960,000	2,851,000	2,988,000	2,420,000
Automobiles	1,136,000	1,499,000	2,059,000	2,291,000	2,152,000
Vegetables, fresh	2,526,000	2,122,000	1,694,000	1,679,000	2,128,000
Sugar-beet seed	1,419,000	1,739,000	4,497,000	1,410,000	2,098,000
Metal-working machinery	1,490,000	1,556,000	1,759,000	2,245,000	1,987,000
Tin and its alloys; britannia metal	1,410,000	1,776,000	2,328,000	2,591,000	1,948,000
Wares of meerschaum, lava, celluloid	401,000	560,000	836,000	1,095,000	1,918,000
Dynamos and electric motors	1,431,000	1,946,000	2,161,000	2,362,000	1,879,000
Agricultural machinery	761,000	970,000	1,428,000	2,056,000	1,799,000
India rubber and gutta-percha	1,553,000	3,264,000	2,171,000	2,048,000	1,738,000
Paper	1,434,000	1,617,000	1,571,900	1,759,000	1,685,000
Potash salts	1,067,000	1,014,000	1,249,000	1,487,000	1,677,000
Castings and wares of copper	1,176,000	1,376,000	1,741,000	1,797,000	1,672,000
Pig iron	526,000	514,000	490,000	1,573,000	1,655,000
Sea fish, fresh	719,100	984,000	1,237,000	1,296,000	1,602,000
Palm-kernel oil, solid	1,296,000	1,347,000	1,270,000	1,129,000	1,594,000
Cotton waste	1,113,000	1,590,000	1,594,000	1,379,000	1,586,000
Cotton yarn	1,499,000	1,665,000	1,589,000	1,629,000	1,565,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

GERMANY—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Flax	$1,455,000	$1,632,000	$1,429,000	$1,438,000	$1,415,000
Scientific instruments	1,128,000	1,024,000	1,008,000	1,282,000	1,389,000
Glass and glassware	1,025,000	1,102,000	1,249,000	1,464,000	1,359,000
Machinery for the textile industries	1,529,000	2,371,000	2,272,000	2,581,000	1,356,000
Motors, other than electric	387,000	651,000	889,000	1,373,000	1,306,000
Musical instruments	902,000	1,006,000	1,145,000	1,250,000	1,205,000
Electrical calculating and measuring apparatus	730,000	908,000	1,351,000	1,524,000	1,179,000
Zinc ores	479,000	669,000	829,000	902,000	1,135,000
Lead and its alloys	918,000	744,000	947,000	1,429,000	1,072,000
Stones, rough or roughly hewn or sawn	725,000	873,000	806,000	859,000	1,003,000
Electric lamps	619,000	745,000	732,000	1,165,000	971,000
Furniture of wood	540,000	726,000	969,000	1,164,000	969,000
Superphosphates	735,000	692,000	687,000	910,000	928,000
Hair and bristles	975,000	1,079,000	944,000	1,051,000	924,000
Beverages	722,000	795,000	826,000	817,000	832,000
Rags and waste for paper making	715,000	983,000	1,059,000	891,000	788,000
Plaited wares	937,000	1,326,000	1,211,000	1,171,000	782,000
Celluloid in sheets, sticks, or tubes	786,000	1,017,000	1,042,000	873,000	766,000
Locomobiles	679,000	606,000	843,000	1,032,000	738,000
Feathers, raw	725,000	829,000	931,000	835,000	731,000
Coal briquets	191,000	250,000	234,000	612,000	685,000
Fish, salted, smoked, pickled	472,000	616,000	651,000	571,000	684,000
Sewing and knitting machines	555,000	655,000	750,000	816,000	674,000
Sugar, refined	6,000	10,000	11,000	361,000	674,000
Typewriters	398,000	539,000	590,000	718,000	652,000
Hats	461,000	600,000	606,000	657,000	638,000
Intestines and bladders of animals	583,000	507,000	483,000	685,000	626,000
Women's clothing	460,000	405,000	573,000	615,000	610,000
Brass	472,000	446,000	569,000	893,000	607,000
Jute yarn	350,000	314,000	345,000	409,000	605,000
Clover seed	213,000	152,000	306,000	199,000	600,000
Herrings, salted or smoked	384,000	513,000	539,000	472,000	586,000
Chile saltpeter	260,000	255,000	492,000	531,000	586,000
Machinery for the ceramic industry, brick making, and stone crushing	395,000	535,000	567,000	677,000	585,000
Silver wares	555,000	609,000	667,000	754,000	583,000
Machinery for the working of wood or stone	541,000	682,000	764,000	851,000	547,000
Fruits and nuts	186,000	223,000	327,000	448,000	546,000
Oilcake	265,000	173,000	309,000	453,000	530,000
Paintings and drawings	405,000	431,000	483,000	453,000	492,000
Linen and ramie yarn	471,000	479,000	525,000	519,000	491,000
Cocoa butter	196,000	307,000	439,000	543,000	461,000
Watches and clocks	357,000	442,000	470,000	516,000	445,000
Milk	166,000	199,000	243,000	336,000	435,000
Cardboard and pasteboard	268,000	337,000	337,000	430,000	421,000
Coconut oil, solid	138,000	153,000	236,000	266,000	417,000
Sheet music	343,000	330,000	419,000	416,000	415,000
Horses	242,000	301,000	532,000	542,000	414,000
All other articles	42,193,000	43,132,000	50,598,000	56,063,000	48,693,000

GREECE.

Total imports	$3,927,000	$4,069,000	$4,010,000	$4,519,000	$4,338,000
Hides and skins	853,000	1,084,000	836,000	985,000	1,177,000
Figs, dried	792,000	810,000	753,000	736,000	784,000
Iron ore	255,000	262,000	222,000	231,000	333,000
Raisins	183,000	201,000	413,000	363,000	323,000
Olive oil	182,000	362,000	159,000	339,000	283,000
Wool	287,000	142,000	150,000	216,000	229,000
Hazelnuts	163,000	245,000	254,000	292,000	209,000
Tobacco	148,000	.....	166,000	175,000	167,000
Sponges	92,000	136,000	123,000	207,000	114,000
Bran	42,000	22,000	46,000	101,000	58,000
Skins and husks of pressed grapes	21,000	5,000	28,000	60,000	49,000
All other articles	909,000	800,000	860,000	805,000	662,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

ITALY.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$24,994,000	$26,597,000	$28,751,000	$32,817,000	$34,316,000
Oranges	2,242,000	2,293,000	2,255,000	2,661,000	2,998,000
Vegetables, fresh	1,389,000	1,896,000	2,189,000	2,608,000	2,528,000
Almonds, dried	1,189,000	1,776,000	1,710,000	1,811,000	2,048,000
Citrons, lemons, cedrats	924,000	1,247,000	1,394,000	1,597,000	1,828,000
Silk, raw	1,839,000	2,070,000	2,008,000	2,081,000	1,613,000
Floss silk	442,000	570,000	543,000	639,000	1,273,000
Ornamental flowers fresh	892,000	1,022,000	933,000	914,000	1,247,000
Cattle	22,000	19,000	44,000	827,000	1,148,000
Hemp	1,291,000	1,086,000	1,123,000	903,000	1,128,000
Rice	971,000	752,000	1,036,000	1,252,000	1,025,000
Hides and skins	555,000	494,000	746,000	620,000	1,000,000
Clover seed	158,000	313,000	696,000	786,000	934,000
Cheese	663,000	884,000	831,000	899,000	874,000
Sulphur	354,000	501,000	590,000	877,000	856,000
Fruits and nuts, n. e. s.	360,000	428,000	447,000	690,000	825,000
Figs, dried	378,000	512,000	560,000	508,000	647,000
Apples, pears, and quinces	616,000	598,000	520,000	386,000	626,000
Chestnuts	583,000	473,000	510,000	786,000	567,000
Hats	523,000	563,000	418,000	444,000	536,000
Tires of india rubber	140,000	163,000	547,000	613,000	523,000
Corn	190,000	88,000	194,000	338,000	351,000
Silk fabrics	193,000	237,000	233,000	295,000	341,000
Bran	34,000	132,000	388,000	494,000	341,000
Peaches, fresh	139,000	151,000	229,000	325,000	331,000
Hazelnuts	389,000	393,000	358,000	367,000	296,000
Slabs of alabaster, marble, serpentine	200,000	225,000	276,000	331,000	261,000
Olive oil	259,000	312,000	291,000	285,000	246,000
Bricks and tiles, common	227,000	242,000	232,000	251,000	234,000
Hay	600,000	69,000	109,000	113,000	233,000
Automobiles	312,000	233,000	270,000	219,000	232,000
All other articles	6,596,000	6,855,000	7,071,000	7,797,000	7,216,000

JAPAN.

Total imports	$1,397,000	$1,519,000	$1,255,000	$1,698,000	$2,042,000
Fish and seal oil	530,000	381,000	136,000	131,000	647,000
Copper	349,000	242,000	307,000	643,000	598,000
Plaited wares	102,000	160,000	143,000	272,000	187,000
Essential oils	27,000	32,000	54,000	79,000	112,000
Japan wax	57,000	61,000	50,000	65,000	55,000
Catechu, kino, kermes	44,000	35,000	46,000	47,000	47,000
Camphor	48,000	49,000	47,000	68,000	35,000
Rice	1,000	296,000	129,000	13,000	.....
All other articles	239,000	263,000	343,000	380,000	361,000

MEXICO.

Total imports	$308,000	$430,000	$419,000	$503,000	$364,000
Coffee	115,000	176,000	142,000	220,000	178,000
Seaweed, esparto, piassava	56,000	51,000	78,000	73,000	73,000
Sisal, manila hemp	51,000	52,000	50,000	55,000	43,000
All other articles	86,000	151,000	149,000	155,000	70,000

MONTENEGRO.

Total imports	$115,000	$114,000	$232,000	$244,000	$261,000
Cattle	8,000	3,000	42,000	127,000	87,000
Hides and skins	27,000	33,000	71,000	39,000	73,000
Wool	32,000	24,000	62,000	21,000	29,000
All other articles	48,000	54,000	57,000	57,000	72,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

NETHERLANDS.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$[illegible]	$[illegible]	$[illegible]	$[illegible]	$[illegible]
Precious and semiprecious stones	1,522,000	1,522,000	1,[illegible],000	1,[illegible],000	1,522,000
Butter	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Linseed oil	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Coal, coke, briquets	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Caraway seed, fennel	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Cows	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Rice	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Coconut butter	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Leather	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Bulbs and roots of flowers	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Wool	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
Superphosphates	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000	[illegible],000
All other articles	1,082,000	1,082,000	1,[illegible],000	1,[illegible],000	1,[illegible],000

NORWAY.

Total imports	$1,268,000	$1,374,000	$1,536,000	$1,932,000	$2,444,000
Fish and seal oil	539,000	508,000	582,000	813,000	1,118,000
Cod, salted or smoked	315,000	360,000	340,000	321,000	348,000
Herring, salted or smoked	220,000	262,000	308,000	276,000	312,000
Fertilizers	6,000	4,000	.....	150,000	265,000
All other articles	168,000	240,000	306,000	372,000	398,000

PORTUGAL.

Total imports	$188,000	$228,000	$263,000	$218,000	$281,000
Cork	105,000	125,000	116,000	125,000	118,000
Cork stoppers	49,000	54,000	57,000	62,000	73,000
All other articles	34,000	49,000	80,000	31,000	90,000

ROUMANIA.

Total imports	$25,470,000	$10,589,000	$15,864,000	$20,735,000	$19,363,000
Corn	2,074,000	1,087,000	4,256,000	12,820,000	11,301,000
Bran	347,000	210,000	748,000	1,078,000	974,000
Timber, round	781,000	692,000	997,000	885,000	637,000
Rape and colza seed	58,000	346,000	456,000	387,000	580,000
Wheat	17,965,000	4,054,000	2,368,000	153,000	535,000
Mineral oils	13,000	124,000	160,000	200,000	512,000
Eggs	229,000	216,000	285,000	297,000	505,000
Wood, hewn or sawn	573,000	510,000	364,000	529,000	495,000
Wheat flour	132,000	123,000	175,000	259,000	347,000
Oil cake	66,000	69,000	148,000	314,000	301,000
Hides and skins	186,000	224,000	208,000	176,000	287,000
Wool, raw	308,000	343,000	304,000	223,000	285,000
Fruits and nuts	172,000	159,000	237,000	246,000	213,000
Peas	13,000	3,000	24,000	80,000	200,000
Fish, salted, smoked, dried	275,000	288,000	342,000	217,000	179,000
Oxen	1,000	1,000	213,000	408,000	175,000
Millet	233,000	204,000	400,000	359,000	159,000
Fresh-water fish, fresh	584,000	393,000	371,000	359,000	137,000
Poultry, live	121,000	176,000	142,000	125,000	119,000
All other articles	1,339,000	1,367,000	3,666,000	1,620,000	1,422,000

RUSSIA IN ASIA.

Total imports	$41,000	$180,000	$163,000	$276,000	$366,000
Oilseeds	21,000	100,000	23,000	77,000	169,000
Manganese ore	3,000	14,000	71,000	134,000	110,000
All other articles	17,000	66,000	69,000	65,000	87,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$36,782,000	$33,764,000	$42,308,000	$46,173,000	$40,712,000
Eggs	8,435,000	8,714,000	10,567,000	11,894,000	12,315,000
Flax	3,508,000	4,120,000	5,375,000	8,148,000	6,420,000
Sugar-beet seed	358,000	526,000	4,289,000	3,825,000	1,806,000
Oilseeds	436,000	938,000	956,000	1,067,000	1,639,000
Corn	630,000	357,000	1,276,000	2,490,000	1,391,000
Hides and skins	407,000	758,000	1,593,000	1,325,000	1,345,000
Hemp, hemp tow and waste	651,000	597,000	1,123,000	1,047,000	871,000
Bran	461,000	237,000	721,000	1,001,000	790,000
Timber, round	950,000	724,000	773,000	897,000	736,000
Feathers	831,000	820,000	746,000	515,000	696,000
Hair and bristles	886,000	773,000	807,000	804,000	665,000
Horses	781,000	821,000	1,416,000	1,434,000	661,000
Wood:					
Hewn	914,000	489,000	404,000	651,000	629,000
Sawn	437,000	328,000	496,000	863,000	615,000
Peas	199,000	247,000	583,000	578,000	571,000
Intestines and bladders of animals	495,000	397,000	475,000	585,000	524,000
Buckwheat	246,000	186,000	366,000	443,000	520,000
Millet	386,000	374,000	431,000	257,000	501,000
Manganese ore	317,000	365,000	508,000	475,000	465,000
Caviare	300,000	310,000	310,000	431,000	441,000
Asbestos	430,000	480,000	574,000	593,000	430,000
Wool	310,000	394,000	286,000	287,000	399,000
Lentils	369,000	415,000	452,000	573,000	391,000
Vegetables, fresh	784,000	480,000	554,000	427,000	351,000
Oilcake	88,000	67,000	115,000	245,000	346,000
Butter	24,000	62,000	200,000	222,000	273,000
Stone, rough or roughly hewn	173,000	123,000	73,000	303,000	259,000
Turpentine; turpentine oil	358,000	411,000	376,000	387,000	253,000
Wheat	8,075,000	5,507,000	932,000	19,000	53,000
All other articles	4,543,000	3,744,000	5,531,000	4,387,000	4,356,000

SERBIA.

Total imports	$5,382,000	$2,399,000	$8,650,000	$8,277,000	$4,615,000
Hogs	376,000	13,000	1,569,000	1,796,000	1,383,000
Poultry, live	231,000	4,000	1,126,000	796,000	773,000
Cattle	30,000	1,000	783,000	1,009,000	735,000
Hides and skins	275,000	297,000	385,000	465,000	674,000
Meats, fresh	6,000	1,000	664,000	1,026,000	238,000
Corn	9,000	1,000	94,000	828,000	174,000
Wheat	2,948,000	685,000	697,000	58,000	1,000
All other articles	1,507,000	1,397,000	3,332,000	2,299,000	637,000

SPAIN.

Total imports	$2,044,000	$2,142,000	$2,617,000	$3,036,000	$3,333,000
Pyrites	675,000	623,000	598,000	710,000	611,000
Cork stoppers	520,000	550,000	778,000	554,000	527,000
Spanish pepper	147,000	149,000	205,000	286,000	450,000
Fruits and nuts	75,000	89,000	114,000	293,000	433,000
Iron ore	114,000	201,000	212,000	195,000	301,000
Lambskins	112,000	45,000	45,000	242,000	186,000
Cork	44,000	67,000	92,000	76,000	168,000
All other articles	357,000	418,000	573,000	680,000	657,000

SWEDEN.

Total imports	**$1,372,000**	**$1,771,000**	**$2,505,000**	**$3,967,000**	**$6,151,000**
Iron ore	**730,000**	**627,000**	**1,297,000**	**2,365,000**	**4,187,000**
Granite, porphyry, syenite	**153,000**	**234,000**	**273,000**	**327,000**	**436,000**
Cattle hides	**13,000**	**77,000**	**106,000**	**113,000**	**256,000**
Cream separators	**160,000**	**155,000**	**124,000**	**87,000**	**214,000**
Pyrite slag for manufacture of iron	.....	**261,000**	**59,000**	**75,000**	**174,000**
Pulp and cellulose	**27,000**	**33,000**	**75,000**	**164,000**	**130,000**
All other articles	**289,000**	**384,000**	**571,000**	**836,000**	**754,000**

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

SWITZERLAND.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total imports	$14,510,000	$17,201,000	$17,329,000	$18,497,000	$15,887,000
Silk fabrics	2,883,000	3,649,000	3,852,000	3,609,000	2,761,000
Silk, raw, dyed, yarn and twist	2,624,000	2,886,000	2,678,000	2,979,000	2,357,000
Watches	2,446,000	2,763,000	2,723,000	2,650,000	2,072,000
Cheese	1,044,000	1,229,000	1,382,000	1,413,000	1,487,000
Cotton fabrics	810,000	1,187,000	1,206,000	1,258,000	1,163,000
Wool	530,000	693,000	550,000	677,000	618,000
Cattle	19,000	75,000	244,000	393,000	363,000
Wares of gold or platinum	94,000	89,000	212,000	414,000	313,000
Cotton yarn	333,000	389,000	333,000	273,000	265,000
Woolen yarn	169,000	256,000	110,000	187,000	246,000
Prepared medicines	102,000	69,000	65,000	56,000	216,000
Boots and shoes of leather	29,000	41,000	66,000	131,000	181,000
Machinery for the textile industries	305,000	328,000	355,000	424,000	176,000
Iron wares	111,000	117,000	134,000	133,000	152,000
Dynamos and electric motors	77,000	144,000	106,000	157,000	149,000
Paper and paper wares	94,000	110,000	119,000	135,000	144,000
All other articles	2,840,000	3,176,000	3,194,000	3,608,000	3,224,000

TUNIS.

Total imports	$249,000	$100,000	$220,000	$305,000	$561,000
Phosphate rock	35,000	22,000	98,000	140,000	273,000
Lead ore	169,000	22,000	.....	42,000	117,000
Salt	11,000	18,000	70,000	56,000	59,000
All other articles	34,000	38,000	52,000	67,000	112,000

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Total imports	$3,359,000	$4,247,000	$5,508,000	$6,327,000	$6,010,000
Cotton	740,000	730,000	1,006,000	1,863,000	1,608,000
Hazelnuts	191,000	256,000	399,000	502,000	810,000
Raisins	560,000	665,000	993,000	777,000	674,000
Lambskins	244,000	425,000	377,000	329,000	582,000
Figs, dried	122,000	217,000	374,000	459,000	416,000
Tobacco	452,000	502,000	789,000	690,000	296,000
Carpets, knotted	55,000	166,000	207,000	191,000	256,000
Gallnuts, myrobalans, valonia	158,000	204,000	179,000	182,000	183,000
Gums and resins	97,000	218,000	162,000	144,000	168,000
Sesame	212,000	170,000	180,000	299,000	103,000
All other articles	528,000	694,000	842,000	891,000	914,000

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Total imports	$5,553,000	$6,306,000	$6,736,000	$8,529,000	$7,731,000
Tobacco	2,405,000	2,665,000	2,946,000	4,198,000	4,927,000
Carpets, knotted	669,000	1,060,000	1,408,000	1,258,000	697,000
Hides and skins	373,000	296,000	321,000	405,000	302,000
Meerschaum	171,000	90,000	221,000	275,000	258,000
Wool	262,000	157,000	149,000	161,000	257,000
Silk, raw	34,000	114,000	163,000	184,000	248,000
Borax; borate of calcium	45,000	68,000	5,000	10,000	137,000
Eggs	138,000	210,000	166,000	376,000	78,000
Bran	80,000	13,000	76,000	214,000	75,000
Fruits and nuts	87,000	110,000	190,000	118,000	62,000
Olive oil	50,000	162,000	34,000	92,000	9,000
All other articles	1,239,000	1,361,000	1,057,000	1,238,000	681,000

UNITED KINGDOM.

Total imports	$44,377,000	$46,392,000	$46,578,000	$49,809,000	$44,146,000
Coal	4,651,000	3,810,000	4,177,000	3,532,000	4,955,000
Woolen yarn	5,615,000	7,060,000	5,551,000	5,951,000	4,896,000
Woolen cloth	3,396,000	3,888,000	3,909,000	3,745,000	3,403,000
Cotton yarn	4,983,000	4,851,000	4,269,000	4,072,000	3,361,000
Leather	1,891,000	1,803,000	2,306,000	1,855,000	2,114,000
India rubber and gutta-percha	1,590,000	2,643,000	2,064,000	2,155,000	1,916,000
Ornamental feathers, raw	1,218,000	1,272,000	1,609,000	1,949,000	1,656,000
Wool	1,784,000	2,023,000	1,771,000	2,183,000	1,511,000

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IMPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

UNITED KINGDOM—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Cotton fabrics	$1,087,000	$1,273,000	$1,126,000	$1,101,000	$905,000
Silk fabrics	826,000	873,000	984,000	1,130,000	846,000
Mother-of-pearl and other mussel shells	240,000	286,000	307,000	844,000	829,000
Pig iron	1,161,000	921,000	586,000	1,655,000	812,000
Boots and shoes of leather	88,000	165,000	400,000	566,000	742,000
Machinery for the textile industries	2,295,000	1,366,000	1,489,000	1,614,000	698,000
Iron wares	806,000	614,000	685,000	698,000	622,000
Precious and semiprecious stones	609,000	609,000	700,000	700,000	609,000
Nickel	516,000	487,000	250,000	553,000	588,000
Agricultural machinery	317,000	820,000	643,000	668,000	579,000
Industrial machinery combined with steam motors	304,000	199,000	461,000	382,000	570,000
Linen yarn	534,000	644,000	600,000	693,000	530,000
Coal briquets	31,000	.....	7,000	245,000	513,000
Wares of india rubber and gutta-percha	425,000	402,000	433,000	539,000	470,000
Manufactures of meerschaum, lava, celluloid	110,000	154,000	220,000	302,000	460,000
Clothing, millinery, hats, made-up articles	306,000	368,000	367,000	390,000	397,000
Sulphate of copper	234,000	144,000	400,000	978,000	385,000
Sewing and knitting machines	360,000	328,000	366,000	405,000	367,000
Paper and paper wares	167,000	193,000	325,000	423,000	364,000
Fish and seal oil	285,000	465,000	554,000	626,000	336,000
Herrings, salted or smoked	237,000	257,000	305,000	244,000	310,000
Hides and skins	231,000	265,000	379,000	203,000	296,000
Sheets and plates, iron	206,000	175,000	303,000	254,000	295,000
Copper	400,000	485,000	423,000	437,000	249,000
Castor oil	118,000	163,000	203,000	212,000	209,000
Coke	261,000	122,000	117,000	98,000	207,000
Lac varnishes	139,000	168,000	166,000	204,000	187,000
Ferrosilicon, ferromanganese, and other alloys of iron	13,000	9,000	64,000	298,000	169,000
Horses	248,000	203,000	203,000	191,000	158,000
Sea fish, fresh	33,000	53,000	91,000	77,000	155,000
Prepared medicines	50,000	54,000	48,000	40,000	136,000
Quebracho logs	322,000	396,000	180,000	415,000	130,000
Photographic dry plates, sensitized	75,000	76,000	99,000	116,000	128,000
All other articles	6,215,000	6,305,000	7,438,000	7,066,000	6,083,000

UNITED STATES.

Total imports	$46,905,000	$48,095,000	$58,821,000	$70,761,000	$65,637,000
Cotton, raw	28,001,000	27,897,000	34,167,000	41,807,000	40,809,000
Copper	6,017,000	6,529,000	6,900,000	11,687,000	8,725,000
Agricultural machinery	783,000	1,008,000	1,050,000	1,878,000	1,774,000
Mineral oils	560,000	545,000	786,000	990,000	1,502,000
Resin	705,000	798,000	1,352,000	1,251,000	1,047,000
Wood, rough, hewn, sawn	861,000	969,000	965,000	1,121,000	903,000
Leather	719,000	749,000	818,000	804,000	758,000
Asbestos	704,000	585,000	605,000	1,133,000	731,000
Phosphate rock	1,067,000	1,234,000	862,000	777,000	678,000
Tobacco	1,329,000	1,326,000	1,099,000	636,000	638,000
Typewriters	436,000	567,000	763,000	678,000	592,000
Binder twine	90,000	145,000	160,000	260,000	393,000
Turpentine, turpentine oil	131,000	190,000	277,000	348,000	361,000
Boots and shoes of leather	155,000	202,000	331,000	463,000	361,000
Linseed	193,000	188,000	13,000	129,000	325,000
Motors, other than electrical	70,000	110,000	147,000	290,000	257,000
Cotton waste	352,000	248,000	243,000	344,000	243,000
Automobiles	35,000	27,000	52,000	223,000	242,000
Iron wares	172,000	187,000	203,000	225,000	210,000
Plums, dried	11,000	25,000	33,000	70,000	205,000
Metal-working machinery	103,000	116,000	187,000	275,000	191,000
Mother-of-pearl and other mussel shells	242,000	400,000	574,000	70,000	186,000
Nickel	50,000	.....	1,000	32,000	173,000
Fruits, prepared, preserved	60,000	76,000	118,000	149,000	155,000
Wool	83,000	123,000	218,000	163,000	155,000
Bone fat	120,000	45,000	123,000	63,000	133,000
Wooden pegs	76,000	70,000	90,000	104,000	103,000
Prepared medicines	18,000	17,000	29,000	24,000	99,000
Corn	3,000	4,000	4,000	15,000	97,000
Sponges	46,000	110,000	107,000	78,000	94,000
Tanning extracts	75,000	55,000	82,000	16,000	67,000
Lard	5,000	72,000	1,433,000	485,000	67,000
All other articles	3,623,000	3,478,000	5,029,000	4,173,000	3,363,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IN EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, 1909 TO 1913.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Sugar, refined	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Wood, hewn or sawn	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Eggs; yolks and whites of eggs	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Wood, rough	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Glass and glassware	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Hides and skins	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Cotton fabrics	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Brown coal	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Manufactures of base metals, other than iron	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mineral oils, refined	6,715,000	6,654,000	6,535,000	14,965,000	15,203,000
Woolen fabrics	22,756,000	13,707,000	14,567,000	14,230,000	13,787,000
Malt	[illegible]	9,936,000	11,657,000	13,657,000	11,677,000
Manufactures of wood	[illegible]	9,526,000	9,067,000	9,761,000	9,962,000
Cotton yarn	1,650,000	2,689,000	3,146,000	4,440,000	9,522,000
Cattle	12,253,000	10,165,000	2,905,000	7,481,000	9,180,000
Fruits and nuts	5,135,000	5,574,000	6,398,000	5,884,000	8,941,000
Clothing and millinery	8,259,000	9,190,000	9,576,000	9,152,000	8,808,000
Manufactures of iron	6,417,000	8,341,000	10,220,000	11,776,000	8,358,000
Sugar, unrefined	[illegible]	4,994,000	6,627,000	11,538,000	8,257,000
Hops and hop meal	4,542,000	7,089,000	6,217,000	10,068,000	8,047,000
Barley	7,425,000	7,234,000	4,538,000	9,301,000	6,914,000
Paper and card board	5,788,000	6,151,000	5,844,000	5,779,000	6,088,000
Leather gloves	4,572,000	5,054,000	4,561,000	4,903,000	6,064,000
Leather	4,334,000	3,988,000	4,080,000	4,779,000	5,793,000
Wool, raw, combed, and waste	4,732,000	4,680,000	4,065,000	4,670,000	5,579,000
Boots and shoes of leather	3,526,000	3,767,000	3,784,000	4,646,000	5,054,000
Feathers, raw	4,366,000	4,458,000	4,074,000	4,575,000	4,719,000
Hats	1,246,000	1,241,000	1,511,000	2,880,000	4,570,000
Paper stock	3,568,000	3,539,000	3,926,000	4,054,000	4,489,000
Silk, raw, dyed; yarn and twist	3,739,000	3,617,000	3,569,000	3,634,000	4,177,000
Paraffin	3,602,000	3,461,000	2,935,000	4,693,000	4,161,000
Beer	2,710,000	2,906,000	3,071,000	3,447,000	3,526,000
Linen and ramie cloth	3,014,000	2,866,000	2,909,000	3,010,000	3,773,000
Woolen yarn	2,411,000	2,530,000	2,426,000	2,540,000	3,708,000
Machinery	2,582,000	3,101,000	3,354,000	4,184,000	3,646,000
Ornamental feathers, prepared	1,417,000	1,637,000	1,954,000	2,627,000	3,591,000
Manufactures of mother-of-pearl	2,412,000	2,777,000	3,551,000	4,133,000	3,562,000
Linen yarn	2,893,000	2,724,000	2,455,000	3,344,000	3,407,000
Horses	9,989,000	9,380,000	7,023,000	6,538,000	3,329,000
Poultry, live or killed	4,637,000	4,121,000	3,488,000	3,284,000	3,303,000
Manufactures of india rubber and gutta-percha	3,792,000	3,867,000	3,866,000	3,950,000	3,155,000
Silk fabrics	2,206,000	1,738,000	2,364,000	2,815,000	3,018,000
Chinaware	2,656,000	3,128,000	3,014,000	2,937,000	2,915,000
Coal	2,325,000	2,250,000	2,228,000	2,608,000	2,861,000
Magnesite	2,439,000	2,416,000	1,948,000	2,260,000	2,655,000
Agricultural machinery	2,249,000	3,006,000	3,242,000	3,279,000	2,585,000
Jute cloth	817,000	1,206,000	1,413,000	1,800,000	2,559,000
Coke	617,000	777,000	1,811,000	2,202,000	2,455,000
Sugar-beet seed	397,000	542,000	2,349,000	4,469,000	2,316,000
Manufactures of paper	2,266,000	2,532,000	2,239,000	2,272,000	2,308,000
Beans	5,068,000	4,217,000	3,391,000	3,990,000	2,245,000
Electrotechnical articles	1,731,000	1,780,000	1,941,000	2,313,000	2,175,000
Clover seed	1,901,000	2,053,000	2,478,000	2,416,000	1,900,000
Human hair	2,435,000	3,386,000	2,359,000	2,855,000	1,908,000
Wheat flour	1,332,000	973,000	795,000	1,022,000	1,907,000
Explosives	1,066,000	1,801,000	2,162,000	2,220,000	1,930,000
Furs	2,260,000	2,487,000	1,921,000	2,291,000	1,912,000
Buttons of bone, horn, vegetable ivory	1,132,000	1,317,000	1,241,000	1,807,000	1,902,000
Oil cake	1,703,000	1,594,000	2,498,000	2,129,000	1,851,000
Hemp and hemp tow	993,000	1,285,000	1,659,000	1,502,000	1,791,000
Liquors, distilled	1,156,000	817,000	1,168,000	920,000	1,780,000
Vegetables, fresh	1,983,000	2,304,000	2,999,000	1,802,000	1,766,000
Silk cocoons and waste, unspun	1,599,000	1,377,000	1,179,000	1,650,000	1,762,000
Manufactures of tobacco	1,158,000	983,000	1,252,000	1,455,000	1,695,000
Cotton waste	1,307,000	1,839,000	1,706,000	1,656,000	1,677,000
Yarn of flax tow	873,000	985,000	1,095,000	1,157,000	1,631,000
China clay	1,184,000	1,296,000	1,373,000	1,532,000	1,600,000
Sulphate of ammonia	1,044,000	1,186,000	1,159,000	1,351,000	1,563,000
Mineral waters	1,800,000	1,888,000	1,718,000	1,679,000	1,545,000
All other articles	77,621,000	82,940,000	81,684,000	84,355,000	85,563,000
Total	470,730,000	490,977,000	488,074,000	554,973,000	502,247,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913.

ALGERIA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$211,000	$292,000	$406,000	$463,000	$505,000
Wood, sawn	163,000	194,000	296,000	377,000	458,000
Malt	3,000	1,000	17,000	10,000	8,000
Mineral oils	2,000	1,000	3,000	3,000	6,000
Mineral waters	3,000	5,000	2,000	5,000	4,000
All other articles	40,000	91,000	88,000	68,000	29,000

ARGENTINA.

Total exports	$2,164,000	$2,884,000	$3,609,000	$4,461,000	$4,601,000
Malt	698,000	828,000	1,171,000	1,694,000	1,447,000
Furniture of bent wood	165,000	144,000	86,000	333,000	543,000
Sugar, refined	183,000	117,000	188,000	305,000	267,000
Cotton fabrics	76,000	128,000	165,000	193,000	222,000
Wood, sawn	92,000	181,000	221,000	121,000	194,000
Woolen cloth	100,000	116,000	120,000	187,000	184,000
Linen and ramie cloth	44,000	80,000	100,000	123,000	150,000
Manufactures of base metals (except iron)	47,000	72,000	133,000	120,000	143,000
Clothing, millinery, and other made-up articles	107,000	132,000	239,000	226,000	125,000
Paper and card board	71,000	52,000	82,000	80,000	96,000
Manufactures of iron	17,000	36,000	99,000	42,000	94,000
Portland cement	1,000	2,000	26,000	94,000	90,000
All other articles	563,000	996,000	979,000	943,000	946,000

AUSTRALIA.

Total exports	$196,000	$287,000	$385,000	$384,000	$418,000
Chinaware, colored, edged, painted	77,000	112,000	122,000	75,000	75,000
Earthenware fittings for insulation or mounting	6,000	42,000	70,000	63,000	48,000
Paper and card board	6,000	5,000	6,000	25,000	33,000
Furniture of bent wood	4,000	11,000	10,000	66,000	32,000
Woolen cloth	6,000	8,000	10,000	10,000	26,000
Buttons of horn, bone, vegetable ivory, mother-of-pearl	17,000	15,000	29,000	16,000	18,000
All other articles	80,000	94,000	138,000	129,000	186,000

BELGIUM.

Total exports	$4,540,000	$4,896,000	$4,492,000	$5,316,000	$5,554,000
Mineral oils	198,000	93,000	29,000	274,000	409,000
Malt	136,000	164,000	196,000	256,000	296,000
Ether	37,000	.....	.....	91,000	295,000
Hops	313,000	254,000	216,000	305,000	289,000
Woolen fabrics	300,000	356,000	268,000	302,000	231,000
Wool	146,000	123,000	85,000	203,000	222,000
Glass and glassware	229,000	229,000	212,000	232,000	209,000
Ornamental feathers, prepared	78,000	65,000	65,000	131,000	209,000
Wood, sawn	278,000	293,000	311,000	129,000	137,000
Hats and hat shapes	40,000	35,000	31,000	44,000	135,000
Furniture of bent wood	115,000	111,000	102,000	104,000	123,000
Wares of meerschaum, lava, celluloid	39,000	37,000	45,000	56,000	123,000
Poultry, killed	111,000	222,000	156,000	162,000	119,000
Paper	180,000	223,000	124,000	133,000	115,000
Beer	54,000	60,000	69,000	93,000	112,000
All other articles	2,286,000	2,631,000	2,583,000	2,801,000	2,530,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

BRAZIL.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$1,423,000	$2,185,000	$2,374,000	$2,804,000	$2,438,000
Malt	460,000	705,000	639,000	1,043,000	775,000
Clothing, millinery, hats, made-up articles	129,000	419,000	411,000	318,000	281,000
Hops	6,000	31,000	193,000	123,000	181,000
Cotton fabrics	68,000	148,000	115,000	183,000	170,000
Paper	101,000	106,000	109,000	140,000	155,000
Furniture of bent wood	53,000	32,000	36,000	98,000	143,000
All other articles	606,000	744,000	871,000	899,000	733,000

BRITISH AFRICA.

Total exports	$180,000	$201,000	$227,000	$236,000	$250,000
Fezzes	86,000	46,000	58,000	61,000	77,000
Manufactures of cotton	9,000	23,000	21,000	17,000	29,000
Manufactures of wool	8,000	12,000	20,000	27,000	23,000
All other articles	77,000	120,000	128,000	131,000	121,000

BRITISH EAST INDIES.

Total exports	$11,744,000	$13,931,000	$10,469,000	$12,877,000	$19,219,000
Sugar, refined	5,543,000	6,912,000	3,546,000	5,013,000	8,926,000
Bracelets and necklaces of glass; works of glass beads	321,000	888,000	579,000	1,946,000	2,789,000
Cotton fabrics	479,000	559,000	580,000	718,000	1,369,000
Glass beads	1,402,000	835,000	948,000	755,000	1,067,000
Woolen cloth	624,000	721,000	785,000	500,000	573,000
Manufactures of paper	503,000	608,000	592,000	493,000	478,000
Paper	313,000	386,000	290,000	252,000	343,000
Matches	269,000	246,000	302,000	266,000	272,000
Hollow glass	135,000	175,000	149,000	181,000	185,000
Furniture of bent wood	61,000	116,000	110,000	149,000	179,000
Cotton yarn	99,000	98,000	130,000	164,000	173,000
Buttons of mother-of-pearl	166,000	228,000	305,000	197,000	156,000
Fezzes	67,000	190,000	138,000	156,000	137,000
Boots and shoes of india rubber	62,000	103,000	154,000	94,000	136,000
Quicksilver	118,000	102,000	69,000	106,000	124,000
All other articles	1,585,000	1,764,000	1,792,000	1,887,000	2,312,000

BULGARIA.

Total exports	$5,628,000	$6,336,000	$6,732,000	$9,605,000	$6,059,000
Sugar, refined	950,000	1,280,000	1,018,000	713,000	1,553,000
Woolen fabrics	276,000	259,000	305,000	628,000	430,000
Leather	202,000	229,000	262,000	174,000	366,000
Manufactures of iron	727,000	712,000	703,000	1,840,000	303,000
Cotton:					
Fabrics	443,000	383,000	443,000	614,000	260,000
Yarn	252,000	195,000	332,000	419,000	238,000
Clothing and millinery	161,000	199,000	179,000	317,000	193,000
Paper	226,000	212,000	265,000	259,000	150,000
Manufactures of leather	65,000	156,000	55,000	110,000	126,000
Glass and glassware	131,000	151,000	162,000	178,000	116,000
Agricultural machinery	141,000	252,000	280,000	349,000	99,000
All other articles	2,054,000	2,308,000	2,728,000	4,004,000	2,225,000

CANADA.

Total exports	$526,000	$610,000	$574,000	$571,000	$833,600
Earthenware fittings for insulation	9,000	24,000	40,000	73,000	161,000
Woolen fabrics	110,000	179,000	120,000	45,000	110,000
Silk fabrics	168,000	98,000	124,000	110,000	90,000
Leather gloves	52,000	10,000	23,000	80,000	68,000
All other articles	187,000	299,000	267,000	263,000	404,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

CHILE.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$225,000	$502,000	$666,000	$473,000	$367,000
Manufactures of cotton	42,000	30,000	32,000	51,000	72,000
Woolen cloth	18,000	150,000	161,000	111,000	41,000
Paraffin	50,000	122,000	66,000	48,000	31,000
All other articles	115,000	200,000	407,000	263,000	223,000

CHINA.

Total exports	$587,000	$574,000	$697,000	$708,000	$1,283,000
Cannon	.....	.....	22,000	20,000	224,000
Paper	89,000	133,000	105,000	67,000	223,000
Manufactures of cotton	20,000	28,000	24,000	31,000	124,000
Needles of iron	59,000	31,000	7,000	59,000	93,000
Soap, fine	79,000	66,000	33,000	93,000	85,000
All other articles	340,000	316,000	506,000	438,000	490,000

CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

Total exports	$121,000	$122,000	$185,000	$330,000	$361,000
Malt	36,000	17,000	33,000	112,000	187,000
Clothing and millinery	51,000	62,000	65,000	67,000	55,000
All other articles	34,000	43,000	87,000	151,000	119,000

DENMARK.

Total exports	$1,293,000	$1,478,000	$1,386,000	$1,789,000	$1,627,000
Mineral oils	82,000	94,000	66,000	322,000	276,000
Boots and shoes of leather	155,000	124,000	160,000	171,000	121,000
Ornamental feathers, prepared	24,000	31,000	38,000	72,000	92,000
Leather gloves	45,000	42,000	29,000	41,000	82,000
Clothing and millinery	87,000	91,000	127,000	89,000	76,000
Woolen cloth	129,000	124,000	55,000	57,000	70,000
Buttons of horn, bone, vegetable ivory, mother-of-pearl	37,000	45,000	57,000	58,000	65,000
Cotton fabrics	31,000	41,000	44,000	39,000	55,000
Linen and ramie cloth	24,000	43,000	37,000	42,000	52,000
Hops	25,000	87,000	42,000	120,000	51,000
Hats and hat shapes	28,000	20,000	23,000	22,000	42,000
All other articles	626,000	936,000	708,000	756,000	645,000

DUTCH EAST INDIES.

Total exports	$183,000	$333,000	$429,000	$697,000	$616,000
Chinaware	47,000	66,000	102,000	132,000	169,000
Wares of base metals (except iron)	31,000	42,000	44,000	81,000	156,000
Paper	21,000	50,000	50,000	83,000	56,000
All other articles	84,000	175,000	222,000	451,000	235,000

EGYPT.

Total exports	$6,945,000	$7,128,000	$8,103,000	$6,483,000	$6,751,000
Wood, sawn	744,000	551,000	616,000	639,000	1,139,000
Clothing and millinery	961,000	988,000	1,226,000	1,031,000	951,000
Cotton fabrics	516,000	646,000	817,000	632,000	765,000
Paper	374,000	366,000	416,000	429,000	518,000
Sugar, refined	506,000	494,000	343,000	370,000	423,000
Woolen cloth	1,107,000	849,000	1,068,000	630,000	306,000
Boots and shoes of leather	200,000	221,000	185,000	138,000	193,000
Furniture of bent wood	186,000	207,000	382,000	329,000	155,000
Glass and glassware	182,000	217,000	199,000	196,000	148,000
Beer	124,000	110,000	96,000	118,000	134,000
Matches	141,000	80,000	99,000	48,000	114,000
Fezzes	84,000	87,000	105,000	73,000	82,000
Tobacco	18,000	524,000	534,000	22,000	24,000
All other articles	1,802,000	1,788,000	2,017,000	1,828,000	1,799,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

FRANCE.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$14,049,000	$15,462,000	$15,216,000	$17,107,000	$16,289,000
Mineral oils	653,000	805,000	925,000	2,246,000	1,934,000
Glass and glassware	987,000	1,041,000	1,021,000	1,041,000	1,126,000
Wood, sawn	1,101,000	1,085,000	1,387,000	1,121,000	989,000
Cellulose	816,000	915,000	986,000	1,047,000	728,000
Eggs	111,000	192,000	401,000	611,000	710,000
Hides and skins	483,000	475,000	371,000	701,000	651,000
Feathers	420,000	476,000	480,000	628,000	569,000
Ornaments of base metals, for men and women	1,084,000	905,000	574,000	585,000	530,000
Wood, hewn	277,000	331,000	430,000	561,000	409,000
Meats	315,000	354,000	366,000	381,000	398,000
Tobacco	339,000	325,000	332,000	373,000	345,000
Furniture of bent wood	256,000	289,000	248,000	276,000	331,000
Hops	179,000	251,000	257,000	266,000	318,000
Woolen cloth	294,000	286,000	244,000	280,000	308,000
Leather	267,000	346,000	200,000	176,000	288,000
Silk, raw	357,000	451,000	226,000	219,000	241,000
Wool	82,000	101,000	86,000	318,000	236,000
Magnesite, calcined	177,000	144,000	150,000	167,000	194,000
Silk fabrics	138,000	136,000	153,000	165,000	192,000
Beans	377,000	445,000	437,000	363,000	186,000
Iron wares	72,000	67,000	69,000	79,000	182,000
Pearls, not set	132,000	132,000	152,000	173,000	173,000
Books and periodicals	136,000	170,000	173,000	182,000	172,000
Hats and hat shapes	25,000	28,000	90,000	153,000	168,000
Clothing and millinery	142,000	142,000	116,000	141,000	164,000
Precious and semiprecious stones	142,000	142,000	162,000	162,000	138,000
India-rubber wares	215,000	204,000	151,000	201,000	136,000
Buttons of horn, bone, vegetable ivory	86,000	83,000	94,000	126,000	132,000
Explosives	28,000	269,000	546,000	230,000	127,000
Paraffin	49,000	154,000	135,000	169,000	122,000
Mineral waters	153,000	152,000	151,000	132,000	121,000
All other articles	4,194,000	4,487,000	4,101,000	3,905,000	3,971,000

GERMANY.

Total exports	$193,266,000	$196,651,000	$193,562,000	$226,171,000	$225,472,000
Eggs	19,924,000	19,632,000	20,516,000	26,242,000	25,177,000
Brown coal	17,246,000	15,403,000	14,497,000	15,453,000	15,209,000
Timber, round	11,813,000	12,500,000	14,831,000	15,946,000	15,017,000
Hides and skins	12,462,000	10,837,000	11,005,000	13,773,000	13,027,000
Cattle	8,177,000	8,524,000	2,673,000	7,046,000	8,743,000
Fruits and nuts	4,435,000	4,462,000	5,454,000	5,055,000	7,641,000
Mineral oils	3,330,000	3,371,000	3,388,000	8,106,000	7,426,000
Barley	6,131,000	5,949,000	3,448,000	7,435,000	5,471,000
Wood, sawn	5,238,000	5,886,000	5,736,000	5,389,000	5,056,000
Cotton yarn	178,000	642,000	743,000	940,000	4,400,000
Feathers, raw	3,718,000	3,700,000	3,321,000	3,934,000	3,770,000
Hops	2,341,000	3,549,000	2,830,000	5,398,000	3,714,000
Linen yarn	2,337,000	2,366,000	2,787,000	2,787,000	3,569,000
Malt	3,598,000	3,307,000	3,311,000	3,361,000	3,449,000
Glass and glassware	2,851,000	2,956,000	3,174,000	3,038,000	2,925,000
Books and periodicals	2,241,000	2,428,000	2,839,000	2,743,000	2,718,000
Wool	2,345,000	2,315,000	2,270,000	2,070,000	2,558,000
Beer	1,449,000	1,524,000	1,740,000	2,020,000	2,261,000
Hair and bristles	1,931,000	2,396,000	2,090,000	2,444,000	2,025,000
Sugar-beet seed	342,000	454,000	2,046,000	3,918,000	2,010,000
Leather	1,032,000	869,000	922,000	1,180,000	1,955,000
Hats and hat shapes	648,000	618,000	738,000	1,079,000	1,853,000
Wood, hewn	1,788,000	1,400,000	1,518,000	1,767,000	1,847,000
Poultry, live	2,317,000	2,393,000	1,884,000	1,701,000	1,789,000
Silk, raw, dyed; yarn and twist	1,635,000	1,197,000	1,410,000	1,604,000	1,734,000
Coal	1,836,000	1,681,000	1,599,000	1,532,000	1,728,000
Oil cake	1,498,000	1,491,000	2,354,000	1,998,000	1,718,000
Woolen cloth	1,381,000	1,607,000	1,523,000	1,753,000	1,646,000
Clover seed	1,518,000	1,556,000	2,191,000	2,182,000	1,616,000
Ornamental feathers, prepared	473,000	639,000	769,000	1,042,000	1,572,000
Cotton:					
Fabrics	872,000	1,184,000	1,673,000	1,623,000	1,559,000
Waste	1,179,000	1,667,000	1,525,000	1,434,000	1,484,000
China clay	1,100,000	1,197,000	1,276,000	1,437,000	1,465,000
Clothing and millinery	1,643,000	1,644,000	1,552,000	1,656,000	1,447,000
Sulphate of ammonia	923,000	1,058,000	1,029,000	1,202,000	1,435,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

GERMANY—Continued.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Paraffin	$1,508,000	$1,366,000	$996,000	$2,161,000	$1,404,000
Furs	1,261,000	1,507,000	1,187,000	1,533,000	1,336,000
Zinc and its alloys	638,000	926,000	898,000	1,052,000	1,242,000
Vegetables, fresh	1,777,000	2,007,000	2,386,000	1,458,000	1,238,000
Horses	1,812,000	1,809,000	1,350,000	916,000	1,209,000
Manufactures of iron	736,000	1,108,000	1,229,000	1,333,000	1,140,000
Poultry, killed	1,499,000	1,269,000	1,194,000	1,188,000	1,139,000
Leather gloves	982,000	1,287,000	1,047,000	1,199,000	1,118,000
Buttons of mother-of-pearl	637,000	713,000	933,000	1,162,000	1,085,000
Ornaments of base metals, for men and women	620,000	839,000	678,000	1,452,000	1,057,000
Cigarettes	644,000	549,000	739,000	851,000	1,026,000
Stone, rough or roughly hewn or sawn	848,000	967,000	1,103,000	928,000	1,023,000
Flax	747,000	820,000	628,000	834,000	880,000
Paintings and drawings	1,029,000	752,000	982,000	937,000	869,000
Woolen yarn	1,120,000	850,000	689,000	628,000	866,000
Boots and shoes of leather	1,224,000	843,000	709,000	677,000	834,000
Methyl alcohol	902,000	634,000	531,000	721,000	798,000
Hemp	389,000	537,000	518,000	546,000	762,000
Cellulose	454,000	472,000	508,000	515,000	720,000
Beans	1,449,000	1,511,000	1,280,000	1,124,000	712,000
Chinaware	545,000	640,000	665,000	756,000	710,000
Bran	1,848,000	1,998,000	1,549,000	1,108,000	697,000
Hemp tow	387,000	476,000	541,000	603,000	672,000
Brass	594,000	588,000	693,000	635,000	669,000
Tin and its alloys; britannia metal	280,000	273,000	478,000	568,000	666,000
Oak and pine tree bark and rind	1,006,000	874,000	712,000	657,000	637,000
Silk fabrics	692,000	585,000	661,000	664,000	634,000
Furniture of wood	527,000	564,000	545,000	629,000	581,000
Wine	611,000	597,000	572,000	679,000	565,000
Paper wares	548,000	543,000	471,000	550,000	541,000
Buttons of horn, bone, vegetable ivory	300,000	321,000	318,000	465,000	540,000
Coal briquets	390,000	468,000	475,000	541,000	537,000
Mineral waters	507,000	644,000	651,000	551,000	533,000
Linen and ramie cloth	236,000	285,000	298,000	368,000	532,000
All other articles	32,609,000	34,537,000	34,726,000	35,892,000	35,486,000

GREECE.

Total exports	$3,256,000	$3,729,000	$3,142,000	$4,751,000	$6,047,000
Sugar, refined	1,247,000	1,401,000	1,043,000	1,673,000	2,044,000
Cotton fabrics	121,000	175,000	132,000	151,000	489,000
Wood, sawn	232,000	306,000	422,000	425,000	429,000
Woolen cloth	312,000	233,000	213,000	182,000	327,000
Paper	123,000	136,000	152,000	179,000	220,000
Beans	84,000	95,000	74,000	67,000	187,000
Wood, rough or hewn	86,000	111,000	90,000	135,000	179,000
Manufactures of iron	62,000	75,000	230,000	715,000	153,000
Clothing and millinery	46,000	82,000	32,000	49,000	131,000
Glass and glassware	62,000	68,000	73,000	111,000	107,000
Hides and skins	17,000	19,000	2,000	6,000	106,000
Cotton yarn	21,000	23,000	21,000	47,000	101,000
Watches	16,000	16,000	27,000	23,000	77,000
All other articles	827,000	989,000	631,000	988,000	1,497,000

HAMBURG (FREE PORT).

Total exports	$17,650,000	$17,942,000	$16,358,000	$19,003,000	$19,987,000
Hollow glass	1,050,000	1,543,000	1,920,000	1,754,000	1,863,000
Sugar, refined	2,102,000	1,560,000	1,440,000	646,000	1,655,000
Malt	946,000	993,000	1,017,000	1,565,000	1,092,000
Furniture of bent wood	1,074,000	1,365,000	1,451,000	1,067,000	959,000
Mineral oils	950,000	914,000	719,000	1,119,000	864,000
Linen yarn, single, unbleached	549,000	372,000	145,000	537,000	716,000
Jute cloth and sacks	3,000	8,000	69,000	335,000	710,000
Paraffin	366,000	546,000	543,000	632,000	691,000
Cotton fabrics	281,000	389,000	353,000	555,000	545,000
Clothing and millinery	437,000	423,000	375,000	543,000	541,000
Paper	614,000	571,000	523,000	471,000	537,000
Wool	302,000	309,000	177,000	313,000	501,000
Woolen cloth	895,000	712,000	415,000	531,000	414,000
Barley	785,000	541,000	502,000	1,040,000	386,000
Hops	176,000	320,000	289,000	425,000	304,000
Cotton yarn	18,000	44,000	46,000	50,000	257,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, [illegible]—Continued.

[illegible] TRADE PART—Continued.

Articles.	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	1903
Linen and ramie cloth	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Needles, thimbles, hooks, buttons, & base metals	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Sugar, unrefined	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Boots and shoes of leather	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Clover seed	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Eggs	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Hides and skins	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Chinaware	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Glue	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Leather	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Spirits, distilled	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
All other articles	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

ITALY.

Total exports	$47,171,000	$46,382,000	$43,123,000	$45,395,000	$43,765,000
Wood, sawn	12,790,000	13,352,000	14,065,000	15,985,000	14,429,000
Pulp and cellulose	1,[illegible]	1,[illegible]	1,334,000	1,411,000	1,489,000
Silk cocoons, dried	1,[illegible]	[illegible]	513,000	1,570,000	1,435,000
Silk, raw	1,[illegible]	1,[illegible]	1,177,000	1,125,000	1,372,000
Paraffin	[illegible]	[illegible]	565,000	986,000	1,174,000
Horses	4,295,000	4,967,000	3,565,000	2,888,000	1,186,000
Wood, hewn	1,705,000	1,963,000	2,165,000	1,924,000	1,044,000
Timber, round	941,000	915,000	964,000	828,000	952,000
Wares of base metals	856,000	965,000	822,000	891,000	886,000
Malt	782,000	775,000	1,059,000	1,140,000	772,000
Glass and glassware	641,000	689,000	705,000	642,000	679,000
Hides and skins	464,000	496,000	394,000	413,000	676,000
Wool, washed	708,000	650,000	568,000	700,000	597,000
Charcoal	651,000	725,000	740,000	688,000	584,000
Cardboard	324,000	455,000	500,000	524,000	561,000
Cotton, raw	75,000	238,000	162,000	311,000	541,000
Woolen cloth	556,000	531,000	495,000	634,000	516,000
Iron wares	438,000	480,000	451,000	510,000	474,000
Beans	600,000	545,000	657,000	908,000	455,000
Leather	280,000	292,000	501,000	501,000	455,000
Cotton fabrics	286,000	324,000	281,000	279,000	430,000
Cattle	2,523,000	741,000	157,000	259,000	393,000
Mineral oils	205,000	195,000	239,000	507,000	374,000
Limestone	95,000	232,000	325,000	365,000	374,000
Furniture of bent wood	232,000	289,000	277,000	359,000	359,000
Firewood	307,000	304,000	331,000	321,000	335,000
Sugar, refined	363,000	271,000	298,000	433,000	318,000
Boots and shoes of leather	276,000	298,000	353,000	322,000	314,000
Sheets and plates of iron	166,000	242,000	283,000	278,000	304,000
Brown coal	201,000	184,000	224,000	432,000	301,000
Wares of india rubber and gutta percha	488,000	519,000	452,000	442,000	299,000
Electric lamps	101,000	202,000	237,000	426,000	277,000
Buttons of mother-of-pearl	234,000	235,000	279,000	320,000	276,000
Beer	244,000	226,000	265,000	262,000	260,000
Linen yarn	323,000	336,000	305,000	266,000	241,000
All other articles	8,756,000	9,896,000	9,285,000	9,255,000	8,685,000

JAPAN.

Total exports	$1,010,000	$1,016,000	$1,057,000	$2,344,000	$2,394,000
Woolen yarn	77,000	337,000	245,000	1,204,000	1,538,000
Paper	566,000	315,000	257,000	143,000	174,000
Malt	49,000	40,000	62,000	117,000	144,000
Manufactures of iron	5,000	35,000	122,000	78,000	53,000
Ammunition, blasting materials	.....	37,000	101,000	260,000	18,000
All other articles	313,000	252,000	270,000	542,000	467,000

MEXICO.

Total exports	$329,000	$396,000	$340,000	$496,000	$350,000
Manufactures of cotton	34,000	55,000	58,000	70,000	46,000
Manufactures of iron	3,000	7,000	9,000	8,000	28,000
Clothing and millinery	13,000	30,000	30,000	17,000	22,000
Shoe elastic	62,000	36,000	55,000	38,000	2,000
Paraffin	13,000	57,000	30,000	67,000	1,000
All other articles	204,000	211,000	158,000	296,000	200,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

MONTENEGRO.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$452,000	$609,000	$534,000	$760,000	$1,042,000
Cotton fabrics	102,000	108,000	71,000	89,000	294,000
Sugar, refined	17,000	54,000	60,000	66,000	176,000
Wheat flour	6,000	11,000	12,000	63,000	127,000
Clothing and millinery	47,000	76,000	49,000	42,000	70,000
Woolen cloth	49,000	71,000	34,000	26,000	68,000
Leather, and manufactures of leather	31,000	50,000	43,000	36,000	46,000
All other articles	200,000	239,000	265,000	438,000	261,000

MOROCCO.

Total exports	$150,000	$135,000	$190,000	$466,000	$817,000
Sugar, refined	27,000	87,000	89,000	290,000	609,000
Wood	4,000	12,000	41,000	22,000	62,000
Woolen cloth	76,000	1,000	4,000	32,000	33,000
All other articles	43,000	35,000	56,000	122,000	113,000

NETHERLANDS.

Total exports	$5,265,000	$5,279,000	$4,865,000	$5,926,000	$6,994,000
Cotton yarn	8,000	22,000	94,000	129,000	1,330,000
Eggs	234,000	135,000	236,000	294,000	441,000
Glass and glassware	393,000	423,000	277,000	293,000	290,000
Malt	240,000	235,000	231,000	311,000	279,000
Explosives	34,000	256,000	130,000	83,000	278,000
Tobacco	243,000	234,000	253,000	387,000	267,000
Woolen cloth	143,000	102,000	120,000	173,000	234,000
Wares of base metals (except iron)	204,000	247,000	234,000	209,000	211,000
Wood	229,000	401,000	327,000	111,000	177,000
Clothing and millinery	178,000	252,000	210,000	172,000	155,000
Furniture of bent wood	121,000	124,000	119,000	138,000	143,000
Shoddy	87,000	86,000	98,000	84,000	135,000
Mineral oils	141,000	137,000	57,000	387,000	128,000
Cotton fabrics	67,000	67,000	94,000	96,000	121,000
Tallow	373,000	191,000	47,000	170,000	117,000
Leather gloves	85,000	124,000	139,000	110,000	112,000
Barley	113,000	93,000	134,000	59,000	92,000
All other articles	2,372,000	2,150,000	2,065,000	2,720,000	2,484,000

NORWAY.

Total exports	$446,000	$429,000	$689,000	$733,000	$903,000
Clothing, millinery, and made-up articles	71,000	86,000	134,000	185,000	201,000
Explosives	15,000	1,000	82,000	36,000	191,000
Wares of common metals (except iron)	38,000	38,000	56,000	79,000	68,000
Manufactures of cotton	23,000	23,000	40,000	51,000	51,000
All other articles	299,000	281,000	377,000	382,000	392,000

PERSIA.

Total exports	$392,000	$560,000	$627,000	$546,000	$750,000
Sugar, refined	224,000	352,000	263,000	225,000	330,000
Woolen cloth	67,000	65,000	104,000	69,000	97,000
Silk fabrics	23,000	27,000	37,000	41,000	93,000
Manufactures of cotton	11,000	22,000	53,000	55,000	71,000
All other articles	67,000	94,000	170,000	156,000	159,000

PORTUGAL.

Total exports	$941,000	$932,000	$1,261,000	$1,672,000	$768,000
Sugar, refined	689,000	391,000	684,000	1,259,000	422,000
Calcium carbide	37,000	226,000	290,000	116,000	95,000
Malt	24,000	15,000	26,000	31,000	36,000
Cotton fabrics	6,000	7,000	8,000	20,000	34,000
Beans	51,000	48,000	21,000	34,000	15,000
Wood	18,000	77,000	62,000	30,000	15,000
All other articles	116,000	168,000	170,000	182,000	151,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

GERMANY.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$28,432,000	$30,905,000	$35,267,000	$37,287,000	$35,226,000
Wood, sawn	1,345,000	3,728,000	4,953,000	4,279,000	3,731,000
Woolen cloth	1,358,000	1,429,000	2,041,000	2,192,000	1,906,000
Cotton:					
Yarn	932,000	944,000	1,352,000	1,571,000	1,238,000
Fabrics	1,474,000	2,153,000	2,758,000	2,612,000	1,826,000
Iron wares	807,000	980,000	1,316,000	1,536,000	905,000
Horses	946,000	725,000	1,110,000	1,333,000	741,000
Hides and skins	694,000	629,000	725,000	695,000	675,000
Wares of common metals	547,000	598,000	694,000	671,000	552,000
Timber, round	423,000	601,000	566,000	580,000	546,000
Firewood	4,000	4,000	26,000	140,000	466,000
Clothing and millinery	209,000	225,000	494,000	605,000	465,000
Glass and glassware	211,000	209,000	573,000	629,000	447,000
Leather	209,000	196,000	439,000	498,000	423,000
Jute sacks	206,000	296,000	351,000	465,000	420,000
Sheets and plates of iron	23,000	308,000	253,000	306,000	354,000
Cartridges, cartridge cases, percussion caps	123,000	57,000	69,000	365,000	334,000
Coal and coke	151,000	131,000	95,000	265,000	326,000
Bars, blooms, billets, of iron	348,000	568,000	491,000	146,000	320,000
Agricultural machinery	306,000	317,000	384,000	779,000	315,000
Boots and shoes of leather	142,000	149,000	153,000	332,000	306,000
Furniture of wood	154,000	186,000	264,000	302,000	302,000
Silk fabrics	186,000	210,000	317,000	307,000	288,000
Hats and hat shapes	78,000	83,000	121,000	157,000	209,000
Wares of india rubber and gutta-percha	223,000	257,000	262,000	351,000	208,000
Ships of iron: steamships	28,000	204,000	283,000	404,000	178,000
Linen and ramie cloth	157,000	157,000	157,000	165,000	155,000
Hay	9,000	2,000	3,000	21,000	144,000
Hops	36,000	64,000	119,000	109,000	117,000
Paper	70,000	69,000	62,000	61,000	114,000
Chinaware	80,000	117,000	102,000	101,000	108,000
All other articles	4,474,000	4,473,000	5,225,000	6,381,000	5,982,000

RUSSIA IN ASIA.

Total exports	$58,000	$124,000	$138,000	$145,000	$167,000
Boots and shoes of leather	3,000	19,000	26,000	61,000	46,000
Cotton yarn	15,000	52,000	37,000	29,000	9,000
All other articles	40,000	53,000	75,000	55,000	112,000

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

Total exports	$15,572,000	$18,349,000	$19,390,000	$18,395,000	$20,803,000
Coke	889,000	1,038,000	1,441,000	1,707,000	1,994,000
Agricultural machinery	866,000	11227,000	1,284,000	1,472,000	1,338,000
Wood, sawn	898,000	1,041,000	845,000	907,000	1,507,000
Woolen yarn	978,000	1,103,000	1,182,900	274,000	820,000
Scythes	528,000	614,000	575,000	610,000	642,000
Clothing, millinery, hats, made-up articles	432,000	524,000	625,000	541,000	575,000
Wool	314,000	360,000	269,000	308,000	521,000
Woolen cloth	285,000	285,000	428,000	537,000	496,000
Automobiles	134,000	199,000	385,000	388,000	486,000
Hides and skins	954,000	867,000	488,000	411,000	485,000
Timber, round	348,000	465,000	445,000	632,000	432,000
Books and periodicals	344,000	386,000	424,000	441,000	437,000
Coal	145,000	167,000	210,000	283,000	386,000
Fruits and nuts	304,000	263,000	317,000	291,000	383,000
Electrical machinery and apparatus	294,000	343,000	425,000	444,000	331,000
Vegetables, fresh	124,000	116,000	164,000	215,000	329,000
Hops	122,000	247,000	233,000	345,000	292,000
Glass and glassware	266,000	347,000	324,000	266,000	290,000
Boots and shoes of leather	225,000	242,000	254,000	258,000	263,000
Needles, thimbles, hooks, buckles of base metals	248,000	255,000	332,000	374,000	259,000
Beverages	225,000	220,000	248,000	242,000	256,000
Buttons of bone, mother-of-pearl	213,000	210,000	223,000	270,000	248,000
Paraffin	210,000	213,000	201,000	224,000	230,000
Musical instruments	166,000	207,000	222,000	191,000	227,000
All other articles	6,055,000	7,410,000	7,846,000	6,764,000	7,356,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

SERBIA.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$3,919,000	$3,513,000	$7,583,000	$8,735,000	$10,817,000
Ships of iron; steamships	394,000	411,000	339,000	587,000	959,000
Wheat flour	8,000	4,000	6,000	9,000	787,000
Boots and shoes of leather	14,000	8,000	43,000	307,000	741,000
Hides and skins	207,000	484,000	553,000	474,000	615,000
Cotton yarn	243,000	247,000	454,000	590,000	543,000
Woolen fabrics	81,000	26,000	274,000	355,000	477,000
Manufactures of iron	477,000	153,000	747,000	904,000	475,000
Clothing and millinery	72,000	26,000	272,000	194,000	428,000
Coal	61,000	144,000	188,000	372,000	419,000
Cotton fabrics	107,000	44,000	437,000	427,000	396,000
Wool	213,000	126,000	150,000	271,000	371,000
Leather	301,000	208,000	434,000	305,000	335,000
Machinery for agriculture and industry	195,000	349,000	312,000	425,000	296,000
Spirits, distilled	7,000	1,000	19,000	36,000	261,000
Sugar	224,000	1,000	288,000	169,000	137,000
All other articles	1,315,000	1,281,000	3,067,000	3,310,000	3,577,000

SPAIN.

Total exports	$1,194,000	$1,461,000	$1,520,000	$1,557,000	$1,510,000
Wood, hewn or sawn	281,000	382,000	396,000	406,000	354,000
Wares of common metals, except iron	153,000	216,000	213,000	329,000	298,000
Buttons of horn, bone, mother-of-pearl	30,000	39,000	61,000	63,000	47,000
Tobacco	213,000	222,000	150,000	.....	.....
All other articles	517,000	602,000	700,000	759,000	811,000

SWEDEN.

Total exports	$1,421,000	$1,465,000	$1,661,000	$1,826,000	$2,090,000
Mineral oils	53,000	87,000	114,000	303,000	401,000
Hops	137,000	180,000	230,000	237,000	288,000
Wares of common metals	142,000	203,000	228,000	206,000	277,000
Linen and ramie cloth	86,000	96,000	146,000	80,000	118,000
Cotton fabrics	49,000	70,000	87,000	72,000	106,000
All other articles	954,000	829,000	856,000	928,000	900,000

SWITZERLAND.

Total exports	$19,312,000	$21,488,000	$22,755,000	$23,809,000	$22,680,000
Sugar, refined	3,514,000	4,659,000	5,757,000	5,790,000	4,818,000
Malt	1,994,000	2,300,000	3,024,000	2,977,000	2,312,000
Eggs	891,000	813,000	1,109,000	1,441,000	1,887,000
Wood, sawn	1,566,000	1,948,000	2,180,000	2,435,000	1,966,000
Mineral oils	646,000	604,000	843,000	1,192,000	1,041,000
Wine	664,000	966,000	706,000	605,000	600,000
Pulp and cellulose	148,000	152,000	156,000	251,000	600,000
Spirits, distilled	684,000	499,000	621,000	273,000	551,000
Cotton fabrics	221,000	285,000	259,000	269,000	516,000
Timber, round	416,000	561,000	705,000	573,000	484,000
Silk, raw, dyed; yarn and twist	201,000	296,000	217,000	272,000	440,000
Poultry and game	309,000	327,000	327,000	331,000	420,000
Clothing and millinery	376,000	385,000	414,000	390,000	378,000
Leather	346,000	391,000	198.000	361,000	305,000
Fruits and nuts	64,000	84,000	123,000	98,000	297,000
Wares of base metals	258,000	226,000	250,000	279,000	259,000
Hides and skins	212,000	276,000	126,000	213,000	255,000
Woolen cloth	107,000	100,000	126,000	138,000	255,000
Silk fabrics	112,000	105,000	83,000	258,000	253,000
Hops	89,000	272,000	237,000	337,000	192,000
Beans	198,000	334,000	237,000	264,000	181,000
Manufactures of iron	121,000	158,000	151,000	187,000	176,000
Meat, fresh or prepared	383,000	290,000	201,000	196,000	164,000
Furniture of bent wood	113,000	137,000	125,000	146,000	124,000
Butter	126,000	100,000	164,000	79,000	106,000
All other articles	5,563,000	5,219,000	4,416,000	4,454,000	4,376,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

TRIPOLI.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$12,000	$23,000	$23,000	$738,000	$739,000
Sugar, refined	.....	.....	.....	178,000	422,000
Firewood	.....	.....	.....	186,000	64,000
Portland cement	.....	.....	1,000	49,000	58,000
Wood, sawn	.....	2,000	2,000	173,000	54,000
All other articles	12,000	21,000	20,000	152,000	141,000

TUNIS.

Total exports	$205,000	$250,000	$223,000	$269,000	$303,000
Wood, sawn	124,000	108,000	135,000	94,000	189,000
Manufactures of wood	13,000	19,000	10,000	47,000	84,000
All other articles	68,000	123,000	78,000	128,000	80,000

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Total exports	$4,633,000	$6,359,000	$6,496,000	$6,889,000	$11,135,000
Sugar, refined	1,377,000	1,900,000	1,844,000	2,247,000	2,837,000
Cotton fabrics	474,000	644,000	805,000	1,022,000	2,739,000
Woolen cloth	725,000	865,000	869,000	673,000	1,096,000
Clothing and millinery	173,000	257,000	360,000	247,000	417,000
Glass and glassware	87,000	171,000	113,000	133,000	378,000
Fezzes	281,000	382,000	325,000	275,000	308,000
Paper	160,000	301,000	293,000	250,000	306,000
Matches	138,000	156,000	159,000	264,000	239,000
Cotton yarn	62,000	125,000	52,000	162,000	235,000
Manufactures of iron	81,000	154,000	245,000	155,000	220,000
Leather	135,000	182,000	126,000	143,000	188,000
Furniture of wood	41,000	79,000	58,000	45,000	102,000
All other articles	899,000	1,143,000	1,249,000	1,273,000	2,070,000

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Total exports	$13,779,000	$19,433,000	$18,961,000	$19,809,000	$19,181,000
Sugar, refined	4,313,000	5,915,000	4,749,000	5,689,000	7,684,000
Cotton fabrics	1,597,000	3,011,000	3,174,000	3,670,000	4,109,000
Clothing and millinery	832,000	1,203,000	1,439,000	1,184,000	914,000
Woolen cloth	1,214,000	1,617,000	1,886,000	1,566,000	781,000
Paper	557,000	666,000	767,000	779,000	499,000
Spirits, distilled	24,000	68,000	209,000	131,000	309,000
Cotton yarn	153,000	184,000	171,000	511,000	307,000
Hay	1,000	1,000	.....	8,000	305,000
Glass and glassware	333,000	451,000	421,000	411,000	297,000
Fezzes	389,000	422,000	496,000	406,000	296,000
Wheat flour	27,000	15,000	13,000	194,000	271,000
Manufactures of iron	322,000	430,000	854,000	620,000	217,000
Jute cloth and sacks	66,000	168,000	119,000	127,000	191,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, varnishes	144,000	175,000	185,000	254,000	187,000
Paper wares	107,000	111,000	128,000	130,000	143,000
Matches	125,000	144,000	165,000	190,000	136,000
Leather	189,000	243,000	272,000	284,000	123,000
Manufactures of leather	126,000	157,000	158,000	127,000	100,000
Wood, sawn	162,000	257,000	222,000	261,000	92,000
Horses	540,000	1,209,000	400,000	377,000	1,000
All other articles	2,558,000	2,986,000	3,144,000	2,890,000	2,219,000

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EXPORT TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, BY COUNTRIES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, 1909 TO 1913—Continued.

UNITED KINGDOM.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Total exports	$48,990,000	$45,560,000	$43,905,000	$52,247,000	$54,774,000
Sugar:					
Refined	18,519,000	17,525,000	15,188,000	14,418,000	18,511,000
Unrefined	6,403,000	3,544,000	5,507,000	11,274,000	7,994,000
Leather gloves	2,668,000	2,872,000	2,613,000	2,855,000	4,088,000
Glass and glassware	2,009,000	1,805,000	1,636,000	1,820,000	1,804,000
Silk fabrics	1,634,000	1,217,000	1,511,000	1,643,000	1,709,000
Hats and hat shapes	89,000	59,000	302,000	916,000	1,567,000
Boots and shoes of leather	680,000	955,000	841,000	1,340,000	1,179,000
Buttons of mother-of-pearl	601,000	616,000	753,000	941,000	955,000
Ornaments of base metals, for men and women	1,082,000	1,603,000	1,262,000	1,089,000	940,000
Woolen fabrics	983,000	914,000	893,000	809,000	783,000
Chemicals, drugs, dyes	768,000	673,000	627,000	802,000	705,000
Barley	236,000	496,000	207,000	372,000	682,000
Linen and ramie cloth	402,000	408,000	425,000	496,000	651,000
Buttons of horn, bone, vegetable ivory	353,000	446,000	351,000	606,000	618,000
Chinaware	828,000	961,000	846,000	718,000	582,000
Leather	343,000	356,000	208,000	509,000	567,000
Clothing and millinery	518,000	570,000	453,000	571,000	549,000
Cotton fabrics	178,000	245,000	355,000	418,000	534,000
Fancy wares and toilet articles, of wood or carving materials	848,000	909,000	935,000	287,000	526,000
Magnesite, calcined	203,000	333,000	260,000	320,000	454,000
Eggs	502,000	436,000	273,000	349,000	428,000
Needles, thimbles, hooks, buckles, of base metals	65,000	141,000	208,000	364,000	396,000
Toys of India rubber	350,000	338,000	286,000	309,000	353,000
Ornamental feathers, prepared	133,000	108,000	130,000	221,000	346,000
Linen yarn	424,000	556,000	201,000	716,000	293,000
Paper	305,000	229,000	267,000	204,000	251,000
Wood, sawn	175,000	194,000	269,000	204,000	242,000
Hops	181,000	266,000	136,000	362,000	240,000
Oak extract	311,000	263,000	287,000	280,000	240,000
Mineral oils	40,000	38,000	4,000	323,000	239,000
Cotton yarn	7,000	56,000	58,000	27,000	223,000
Brushmakers' wares	290,000	311,000	232,000	230,000	227,000
All other articles	7,862,000	6,115,000	6,381,000	6,474,000	5,528,000

UNITED STATES.

Total exports	$17,100,000	$16,515,000	$11,866,000	$12,969,000	$14,258,000
Magnesite, calcined	1,666,000	1,631,000	1,203,000	1,328,000	1,495,000
Hops	644,000	1,267,000	925,000	1,250,000	1,489,000
Glass and glassware	2,046,000	1,563,000	758,000	965,000	1,205,000
Linen and ramie cloth	743,000	745,000	837,000	830,000	1,030,000
Beer	341,000	354,000	392,000	470,000	573,000
Chinaware	406,000	401,000	290,000	245,000	459,000
Chemicals	203,000	316,000	215,000	216,000	394,000
Hides and skins	747,000	239,000	391,000	465,000	354,000
Cotton fabrics	231,000	284,000	225,000	287,000	334,000
Toys of wood	313,000	394,000	311,000	293,000	327,000
Woolen cloth	190,000	212,000	178,000	136,000	321,000
Clothing and millinery	1,126,000	1,048,000	672,000	418,000	317,000
Wares of base metals	425,000	290,000	181,000	181,000	299,000
Hats	28,000	70,000	128,000	195,000	298,000
Sugar	623,000	733,000	496,000	352,000	243,000
Leather gloves	305,000	302,000	297,000	162,000	236,000
Furniture of bent wood	181,000	143,000	122,000	120,000	221,000
Musical instruments	305,000	239,000	317,000	223,000	215,000
Fancy wares of wood and carving materials	239,000	155,000	123,000	95,000	198,000
Medicinal plants, dried	283,000	237,000	215,000	199,000	192,000
Beans	1,525,000	627,000	140,000	953,000	191,000
Artificial flowers	842,000	791,000	219,000	208,000	186,000
Cellulose	280,000	247,000	434,000	205,000	173,000
Hair nets	114,000	243,000	30,000	79,000	129,000
Spirits, distilled	94,000	57,000	96,000	130,000	128,000
Basketmakers' wares	81,000	68,000	57,000	90,000	114,000
Boots and shoes of leather	4,000	33,000	41,000	59,000	109,000
Linen laces and embroideries	28,000	36,000	80,000	64,000	109,000
Mineral waters	170,000	109,000	124,000	168,000	108,000
Leather	17,000	15,000	23,000	85,000	105,000
Silk, artificial	34,000	275,000	90,000	119,000	104,000
Books and periodicals	172,000	231,000	98,000	229,000	82,000
All other articles	2,694,000	3,160,000	2,158,000	2,150,000	2,520,000

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FOREIGN TRADE OF AUSTRIA.

Foreign Trade of Austria in 1912, by Classes and Principal Articles.

Classes and articles.	Imports from—		Exports to—	
	Foreign countries.	Hungary.	Foreign countries.	Hungary
1 Colonial products	$21,548,000	$108,000	$5,000	$3,429,000
Coffee	17,949,000	103,000	1,000	2,379,000
2. Spices	1,442,000	169,000	7,000	410,000
3. Southern fruits	9,437,000	57,000	811,000	1,189,000
4. Sugar	230,000	354,000	34,132,000	2,885,000
5. Tobacco, and manufactures of	9,135,000	3,407,000	1,461,000	2,000
6. Breadstuffs, malt, and legumes	23,537,000	119,249,000	21,688,000	2,614,000
Wheat	224,000	22,413,000	30,000	20,000
Rye	1,111,000	12,622,000	13,000	14,000
Barley	86,000	9,101,000	6,841,000	83,000
Oats	454,000	9,244,000	2,000	318,000
Corn	13,829,000	7,101,000	19,000	465,000
Flour and mill products	385,000	54,804,000	76,000	413,000
Rice	5,241,000	2,707,000	498,000	547,000
Malt		458,000	12,798,000	395,000
7. Fruits, vegetables, plants	35,241,000	8,857,000	24,938,000	3,870,000
Fruits	2,997,000	1,581,000	4,869,000	950,000
Seeds	23,660,000	2,069,000	6,837,000	1,244,000
Hops	198,000	664,000	9,880,000	512,000
8. Live stock	7,511,000	54,849,000	7,105,000	810,000
Cattle	3,025,000	32,639,000	4,108,000	415,000
Hogs	1,928,000	18,445,000	18,000	139,000
Horses	2,622,000	3,147,000	2,911,000	246,000
9. Other animals	2,697,000	5,636,000	2,398,000	436,000
Poultry and game	787,000	5,382,000	1,687,000	72,000
Fish, fresh	1,765,000	220,000	601,000	310,000
10. Animal products	42,255,000	9,393,000	49,214,000	4,158,000
Milk	576,000	2,390,000	134,000	128,000
Eggs	13,350,000	2,994,000	25,609,000	115,000
Hides and skins	18,647,000	2,700,000	15,280,000	2,963,000
Hair and bristles	2,790,000	121,000	3,666,000	441,000
Feathers	4,514,000	556,000	3,321,000	220,000
11. Fats and greases	9,242,000	7,721,000	6,117,000	3,521,000
Butter	2,644,000	1,529,000	814,000	158,000
Lard and bacon	645,000	4,928,000	(a)	(a)
Paraffin	36,000	315,000	4,067,000	124,000
12. Fatty oils	2,590,000	1,556,000	123,000	1,277,000
13. Beverages	2,249,000	16,098,000	5,936,000	6,330,000
Beer	202,000	101,000	3,400,000	1,208,000
Wine	1,547,000	13,662,000	1,055,000	3,226,000
Spirits, distilled	293,000	2,175,000	775,000	1,532,000
14. Comestibles	7,607,000	7,347,000	2,964,000	9,645,000
Meat, ham, sausages	325,000	5,052,000	1,126,000	2,660,000
Cheese	1,992,000	729,000	471,00	75,000
Cocoa powder, cocoa butter, chocolate	847,000	222,000	286,000	1,997,000
15. Wood, coal, and peat	42,050,000	6,816,000	69,148,000	13,359,000
Wood	5,753,000	5,615,000	47,914,000	4,890,000
Brown coal	78,000	685,000	15,864,000	776,000
Coal	30,420,000	11,000	2,410,000	4,547,000
Coke	4,527,000	19,000	2,113,000	3,133,000
16. Materials for turning and carving	5,765,000	229,000	661,000	187,000
17. Minerals	13,984,000	2,660,000	8,493,000	861,000
Iron ore	3,643,000	2,118,000	404,000	
China clay	141,000		1,531,000	57,000
18. Medicinal wares and perfumery	1,524,000	27,000	117,000	226,000
19. Dyeing and tanning materials	2,597,000	527,000	766,000	271,000
20. Gums and resins	5,176,000	45,000	1,789,000	934,000
Resin, common	2,201,000	3,000	75,000	79,000
21. Mineral oils	687,000	1,421,000	14,601,000	5,464,000
22. Cotton, and manufactures of	79,709,000	6,742,000	33,952,000	56,429,000
Cotton:				
Raw and waste	61,246,000	237,000	2,998,000	528,000
Yarn	7,164,000	1,882,000	4,376,000	6,069,000
Fabrics	11,264,000	4,600,000	28,076,000	49,757,000
23. Vegetable fibers, n.e.s., and manufactures of	18,747,000	3,022,000	11,983,000	8,989,000
Flax; flax tow and waste	9,830,000	75,000	1,003,000	56,000
Hemp; hemp tow and waste	1,254,000	632,000	244,000	19,000
Jute; jute tow and waste	4,296,000	11,000	(a)	(a)
Linen: Yarn	1,279,000	178,000	4,521,000	1,093,000
Fabrics	(a)	(a)	6,945,000	6,513,000
Jute sacks	(a)	(a)	542,000	2,601,000

a Not shown separately.

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FOREIGN TRADE OF AUSTRIA IN 1912, BY CLASSES AND PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.—Contd.

Classes and articles.	Imports from—		Exports to—	
	Foreign countries.	Hungary.	Foreign countries.	Hungary.
24. Wool, and manufactures of	$50,558,000	$5,990,000	$19,979,000	$29,727,000
Wool	30,864,000	2,449,000	3,639,000	398,000
Woolen yarn	11,456,000	106,000	2,635,000	1,493,000
Woolen fabrics	8,200,000	3,435,000	13,651,000	27,828,000
25. Silk, and manufactures of	23,237,000	644,000	8,278,000	9,438,000
Silk, raw, dyed, yarn and twist	12,795,000	262,000	2,165,000	458,000
Silk fabrics	7,259,000	205,000	2,794,000	4,611,000
Semi-silken fabrics	2,797,000	166,000	1,837,000	4,369,000
26. Made-up articles	4,774,000	1,542,000	20,384,000	24,296,000
Hats and fezzes	1,313,000	400,000	4,886,000	3,778,000
Clothing and body linen	2,302,000	924,000	9,542,000	17,036,000
27. Brush and sieve-makers' wares	351,000	680,000	52,000	394,000
28. Wares of straw, cane, bast	2,556,000	221,000	1,024,000	351,000
29. Paper and paper wares	7,488,000	2,099,000	11,175,000	8,212,000
Paper pulp	488,000	936,000	3,259,000	204,000
Paper	2,235,000	743,000	4,369,000	4,668,000
Paper wares	4,249,000	348,000	2,377,000	2,671,000
30. India rubber, and manufactures of	10,977,000	472,000	3,817,000	2,450,000
31. Oilcloth, and manufactures of	352,000	861,000	417,000	823,000
32. Leather, and manufactures of	16,945,000	5,510,000	15,144,000	21,905,000
Leather	12,278,000	4,092,000	4,120,000	12,734,000
Manufactures of leather	4,667,000	1,418,000	11,024,000	9,171,000
33. Furriers' wares	5,169,000	227,000	2,244,000	635,000
34. Wooden wares; wares of materials for turning and carving	6,280,000	3,303,000	16,989,000	8,287,000
Furniture	1,061,000	1,029,000	4,822,000	4,594,000
35. Glass and glassware	1,770,000	280,000	15,643,000	4,541,000
36. Wares of stone	2,145,000	300,000	1,891,000	1,831,000
37. Wares of clay	1,904,000	221,000	4,985,000	3,206,000
Chinaware	151,000	15,000	2,935,000	1,201,000
38. Iron, and manufactures of	22,351,000	4,353,000	20,821,000	24,628,000
Pig iron	8,492,000	129,000	975,00	2,552,000
Blooms, billets, and bars	2,179,000	799,000	2,035,000	3,419,000
Sheets and plates	1,353,000	999,000	1,425,000	1,687,000
Wire	405,000	10,000	470,000	959,000
Iron wares	9,922,000	2,416,000	15,916,000	16,011,000
39. Other base metals, and manufactures of	32,432,000	1,896,000	19,313,000	9,323,000
Tin; britannia metal	4,121,000	64,000	943,000	702,000
Zinc	4,157,000	94,000	1,242,000	225,000
Copper	14,035,000	309,000	350,000	591,000
Metal wares	4,826,000	1,072,000	14,668,000	7,072,000
40 Machinery, other than electrical	21,112,000	1,544,000	8,518,000	14,471,000
Steam engines, steam turbines	305,000	89,000	1,301,000	661,000
Agricultural implements and machinery	3,491,000	373,000	2,743,000	2,830,000
Textile machinery	4,416,000	20,000	424,000	270,000
41. Electrical machinery and apparatus	6,795,000	987,000	2,900,000	3,869,000
42. Vehicles and vessels	4,160,000	360,000	4,016,000	1,972,000
Automobiles and motorcycles	3,253,000	127,000	1,666,000	872,000
43. Precious metals, precious stones, jewelry	11,838,000	4,981,000	37,153,000	10,225,000
Bullion and coin	2,512,000	4,389,000	34,173,000	4,895,000
Jewelry	4,823,000	332,000	1,300,000	4,065,000
44. Instruments; clocks and watches	10,487,000	395,000	2,438,000	4,289,000
Typewriters; calculating machines	1,405,000	50,000	60,000	428,000
Musical instruments	1,055,000	52,000	1,215,000	1,430,000
Watches	2,543,000	125,000	50,000	710,000
45. Salt	280,000	2,000	1,000	3,000
46. Chemical substances and products	13,463,000	3,665,000	8,409,000	5,338,000
47. Colors, dyes, varnishes, medicines, perfumery	5,678,000	581,000	2,089,000	3,432,000
Varnishes	459,000	212,000	157,000	1,298,000
Coal-tar dyes	3,355,000	5,000	406,000	160,000
48. Soap, candles, manufactures of wax	364,000	222,000	516,000	2,608,000
49. Explosives	352,000	589,000	2,193,000	786,000
50. Literary and artistic products	11,258,000	283,000	5,892,000	1,301,000
Books, periodicals, maps	10,046,000	196,000	4,108,000	958,000
Paintings and drawings	595,000	43,000	1,427,000	151,000
51. Waste materials	9,650,000	1,832,000	5,504,000	849,000
Slags	2,484,000	1,000	353,000	132,000
Bran	3,295,000	737,000	1,507,000	216,000
Oil cake	1,042,000	295,000	1,721,000	101,000
Total (exclusive of bullion and coin)	624,080,000	295,955,000	499,391,000	321,287,000

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FOREIGN TRADE OF HUNGARY.

Total Foreign Trade of Hungary, by Countries of Origin and Destination, 1911 and 1912.

Countries.	1911			1912		
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
Austria	$310,276,000	$282,662,000	$592,938,000	$321,483,000	$293,756,000	$615,239,000
Germany	38,121,000	25,876,000	63,997,000	42,241,000	28,676,000	70,917,000
United Kingdom	8,608,000	7,816,000	16,424,000	8,927,000	13,188,000	22,115,000
Bosnia and Herzegovina	5,260,000	9,823,000	15,083,000	6,676,000	9,973,000	16,649,000
Roumania	5,979,000	5,747,000	11,726,000	8,954,000	6,835,000	15,789,000
Italy	4,728,000	9,122,000	13,850,000	5,571,000	9,065,000	14,636,000
United States	8,189,000	2,887,000	11,076,000	10,960,000	3,382,000	14,342,000
British East Indies	10,533,000	1,902,000	12,435,000	9,838,000	2,388,000	12,226,000
France	5,046,000	4,511,000	9,557,000	5,310,000	4,580,000	9,890,000
Serbia	4,769,000	2,632,000	7,401,000	4,254,000	3,160,000	7,414,000
Turkey in Europe	962,000	3,134,000	4,096,000	1,882,000	3,955,000	5,837,000
Switzerland	2,099,000	2,503,000	4,602,000	2,220,000	2,639,000	4,859,000
Russia	2,415,000	2,124,000	4,539,000	2,816,000	1,757,000	4,573,000
Bulgaria	708,000	1,715,000	2,423,000	1,553,000	2,912,000	4,465,000
Turkey in Asia	1,100,000	1,109,000	2,209,000	952,000	1,727,000	2,679,000
Egypt	904,000	979,000	1,883,000	1,176,000	1,411,000	2,587,000
Argentina	986,000	320,000	1,306,000	1,871,000	492,000	2,363,000
Netherlands	830,000	1,153,000	1,983,000	1,038,000	1,289,000	2,327,000
Belgium	1,466,000	825,000	2,291,000	1,523,000	668,000	2,191,000
Trieste free port	1,254,000	252,000	1,506,000	1,528,000	299,000	1,827,000
Brazil	1,919,000	206,000	2,125,000	1,347,000	404,000	1,751,000
Dutch East Indies	1,014,000	31,000	1,045,000	1,152,000	27,000	1,179,000
Spain	640,000	623,000	1,263,000	778,000	392,000	1,170,000
Greece	264,000	503,000	767,000	240,000	673,000	913,000
All other countries	4,617,000	3,134,000	7,751,000	4,775,000	4,804,000	9,579,000
Total	422,687,000	371,589,000	794,276,000	449,065,000	398,452,000	847,517,000

Principal Articles in Import Trade of Hungary, 1908 to 1912.

Articles.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
Cotton cloth	$37,359,000	$40,970,000	$39,490,000	$41,343,000	$40,100,000
Woolen cloth	22,380,000	27,337,000	29,705,000	27,432,000	25,495,000
Leather	10,817,000	12,378,000	13,948,000	15,843,000	15,387,000
Coal	9,440,000	10,581,000	8,541,000	11,092,000	13,205,000
Corn	192,000	587,000	661,000	1,402,000	8,440,000
Boots and shoes of leather	4,785,000	5,004,000	5,317,000	6,254,000	8,299,000
Men's clothing	4,579,000	5,145,000	5,885,000	6,622,000	7,157,000
Body linen	3,911,000	4,766,000	5,482,000	5,926,000	5,742,000
Cotton, raw	3,179,000	3,525,000	3,821,000	4,299,000	5,629,000
Rice, uncleaned	4,682,000	4,315,000	4,718,000	5,062,000	5,373,000
Hides and skins	3,600,000	3,501,000	4,109,000	5,502,000	5,212,000
Furniture of wood	4,189,000	4,179,000	5,332,000	6,346,000	5,190,000
Coffee	3,549,000	3,739,000	4,217,000	4,970,000	5,140,000
Knit goods of cotton	4,661,000	5,081,000	4,667,000	4,567,000	5,109,000
Cotton yarn	5,188,000	5,264,000	5,634,000	6,025,000	4,883,000
Silk cloth	3,207,000	3,734,000	3,817,000	3,787,000	4,400,000
Iron blooms, billets, and bars	2,964,000	2,066,000	1,949,000	2,691,000	4,325,000
Women's clothing	2,909,000	3,479,000	3,812,000	4,084,000	4,299,000
Agricultural machinery	2,514,000	2,639,000	3,276,000	3,487,000	4,278,000
Wood, sawn	3,163,000	3,234,000	3,573,000	4,227,000	4,228,000
Mineral oils, crude	1,296,000	1,634,000	2,306,000	2,790,000	3,995,000
Pig iron	2,161,000	2,167,000	1,694,000	2,265,000	3,636,000
Meat, fresh	817,000	629,000	520,000	3,187,000	3,368,000
Coke	2,850,000	2,596,000	2,365,000	2,549,000	3,355,000
Tobacco, leaf	3,018,000	2,905,000	3,182,000	3,312,000	3,218,000
Men's hats	2,575,000	2,609,000	2,758,000	3,030,000	3,186,000
Wine	1,852,000	1,565,000	2,253,000	1,949,000	3,184,000
Printing paper	2,082,000	2,401,000	2,692,000	2,917,000	3,154,000
Linen fabrics	2,706,000	2,769,000	3,209,000	3,390,000	3,087,000
Paper wares	2,406,000	2,476,000	2,759,000	2,983,000	3,069,000
Copper	1,519,000	1,698,000	1,878,000	2,212,000	3,034,000
Sacks of jute or linen	2,388,000	2,149,000	2,382,000	2,734,000	3,010,000
Sugar, refined	2,379,000	2,495,000	2,761,000	2,416,000	2,859,000
Oil seeds	1,396,000	2,126,000	2,305,000	3,156,000	2,643,000
Heat motors and parts	854,000	1,342,000	1,762,000	2,053,000	2,627,000
Semisilken cloth	1,767,000	2,156,000	2,285,000	2,394,000	2,445,000
Wool	1,298,000	2,071,000	2,171,000	2,210,000	2,419,000
Diamonds	1,827,000	2,030,000	2,030,000	2,350,000	2,350,000

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PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IN IMPORT TRADE OF HUNGARY, 1908 TO 1912—Continued.

Articles.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
Hollow glass	$1,618,000	$1,596,000	$1,675,000	$1,824,000	$2,147,000
Sheet and plate glass	1,148,000	1,284,000	1,557,000	1,770,000	2,122,000
Sheet iron, sheet steel	1,556,000	1,379,000	1,457,000	1,766,000	2,120,000
Goldsmiths' wares	905,000	1,457,000	1,859,000	2,309,000	2,105,000
Soap	1,278,000	1,336,000	1,494,000	1,947,000	2,083,000
Books	1,490,000	1,642,000	1,751,000	1,946,000	2,032,000
Metal-working machinery	996,000	829,000	783,000	1,295,000	1,904,000
Dynamos and electric motors	1,032,000	1,475,000	1,311,000	1,565,000	1,872,000
Silversmiths' wares	1,244,000	1,557,000	1,600,000	1,830,000	1,837,000
Chocolate	846,000	1,036,000	1,366,000	1,708,000	1,825,000
Woolen yarn	1,193,000	1,464,000	1,642,000	1,607,000	1,812,000
Sulphate of copper	842,000	485,000	525,000	902,000	1,804,000
Musical instruments	1,134,000	1,289,000	1,439,000	1,639,000	1,711,000
Candy	852,000	943,000	1,066,000	1,279,000	1,704,000
Jute, raw	1,220,000	1,218,000	1,142,000	1,987,000	1,688,000
Cotton thread for retail trade	1,532,000	1,593,000	1,718,000	1,787,000	1,603,000
Cotton embroidery	664,000	880,000	1,223,000	1,619,000	1,596,000
Nails	1,035,000	1,132,000	1,278,000	1,397,000	1,477,000
Meat, prepared	801,000	815,000	1,005,000	1,343,000	1,456,000
Phosphate rock	664,000	942,000	1,059,000	1,265,000	1,443,000
Wood:					
Rough	1,094,000	1,182,000	1,035,000	1,461,000	1,399,000
Hewn	1,422,000	1,036,000	1,227,000	1,530,000	1,357,000
Fruits, fresh	1,132,000	1,748,000	1,425,000	1,413,000	1,313,000
Beer	1,001,000	936,000	861,000	1,319,000	1,269,000
All other articles	117,443,000	148,584,000	145,273,000	165,323,000	170,853,000
Total	316,604,000	367,177,000	376,041,000	422,687,000	449,065,000

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IN EXPORT TRADE OF HUNGARY, 1908 TO 1912.

Articles.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
Flour; wheat groats	$45,955,000	$52,755,000	$43,508,000	$51,548,000	$53,815,000
Oxen	18,177,000	22,040,000	24,859,000	21,039,000	24,704,000
Wheat	21,039,000	14,637,000	16,656,000	23,439,000	22,089,000
Hogs	14,716,000	20,921,000	19,784,000	11,537,000	18,306,000
Wine	5,849,000	7,035,000	8,123,000	11,677,000	13,775,000
Sugar, unrefined	2,621,000	2,323,000	2,609,000	4,850,000	13,205,000
Rye	8,552,000	8,639,000	9,681,000	12,623,000	12,565,000
Barley	10,619,000	9,767,000	8,562,000	9,911,000	11,582,000
Wood, sawn	9,292,000	8,924,000	9,632,000	10,423,000	11,063,000
Oats	6,002,000	8,164,000	5,702,000	7,676,000	9,156,000
Sugar, refined	8,890,000	6,965,000	10,270,000	6,425,000	9,035,000
Corn	11,822,000	12,465,000	11,332,000	15,659,000	7,760,000
Horses	5,137,000	6,397,000	7,371,000	7,841,000	6,791,000
Eggs	7,323,000	7,418,000	7,300,000	7,414,000	6,632,000
Cows	2,793,000	4,796,000	6,709,000	3,022,000	6,014,000
Hides and skins	3,815,000	5,264,000	5,117,000	4,545,000	5,442,000
Leather	5,220,000	4,764,000	5,447,000	5,173,000	5,261,000
Cotton cloth	4,835,000	4,773,000	5,028,000	5,170,000	4,745,000
Poultry, killed	4,009,000	4,504,000	4,551,000	4,533,000	4,703,000
Tobacco, leaf	4,440,000	4,694,000	4,294,000	3,914,000	4,548,000
Steers	2,356,000	2,683,000	3,023,000	2,731,000	4,038,000
Rice, cleaned	2,539,000	3,043,000	2,551,000	3,847,000	3,638,000
Woolen cloth	2,324,000	2,642,000	3,026,000	3,644,000	3,579,000
Meat, fresh	2,874,000	3,303,000	3,360,000	3,614,000	3,461,000
Wool	3,768,000	3,930,000	3,987,000	3,327,000	3,393,000
Beans	2,465,000	3,989,000	2,755,000	2,458,000	3,193,000
Cotton yarn	3,070,000	2,306,000	2,692,000	3,051,000	3,173,000
Lard	2,796,000	2,928,000	2,611,000	1,776,000	2,752,000
Wood, rough	1,425,000	1,294,000	1,547,000	2,106,000	2,618,000
Fodder meal	2,020,000	2,094,000	2,023,000	2,399,000	2,418,000
Milk	1,474,000	1,706,000	1,947,000	2,212,000	2,392,000
Bacon	1,629,000	1,985,000	1,785,000	1,476,000	2,330,000
Poultry, live	2,118,000	2,178,000	2,428,000	2,301,000	2,288,000
Iron ore	2,351,000	2,289,000	2,398,000	2,438,000	2,281,000
Bed feathers	2,008,000	1,924,000	1,950,000	1,898,000	2,116,000
Hemp	1,385,000	1,366,000	1,834,000	2,244,000	2,027,000
Clover seed	1,380,000	1,495,000	1,877,000	1,640,000	1,760,000
Fruits, fresh	2,298,000	2,302,000	2,662,000	4,099,000	1,747,000
Paper pulp	1,694,000	1,263,000	1,344,000	1,600,000	1,732,000
Boots and shoes of leather	1,203,000	1,267,000	1,231,000	1,471,000	1,644,000
Butter	1,901,000	2,050,000	1,989,000	1,651,000	1,633,000
Fatty oils	768,000	1,130,000	1,740,000	1,735,000	1,610,000
Furniture of wood	1,189,000	1,209,000	1,456,000	1,629,000	1,563,000
[illegible] straw	952,000	1,234,000	1,345,000	1,514,000	1,485,000
	989,000	1,081,000	1,023,000	1,163,000	1,381,000

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PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IN EXPORT TRADE OF HUNGARY, 1908 TO 1912—Continued.

Articles.	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
Staves of hard wood	$1,216,000	$812,000	$894,000	$1,110,000	$1,374,000
Sugar beets	311,000	681,000	987,000	1,450,000	1,347,000
Agricultural machinery	680,000	831,000	1,231,000	1,293,000	1,344,000
Brushmakers' wares	857,000	921,000	1,062,000	1,290,000	1,333,000
Malt	1,332,000	1,095,000	1,064,000	1,274,000	1,182,000
Mineral water	1,070,000	1,123,000	1,049,000	1,060,000	1,123,000
Sausages	874,000	921,000	1,025,000	1,098,000	1,119,000
Silk, raw	886,000	1,054,000	1,132,000	1,082,000	1,081,000
Sheet iron, sheet steel	1,100,000	1,463,000	1,559,000	1,311,000	1,068,000
Torpedoes	746,000	574,000	693,000	1,013,000	1,031,000
Charcoal	984,000	903,000	934,000	949,000	1,010,000
Bran	1,222,000	1,042,000	1,460,000	1,752,000	975,000
Potatoes	352,000	544,000	781,000	1,192,000	943,000
Iron blooms, billets, and bars	1,048,000	1,515,000	1,274,000	1,131,000	922,000
Hops	131,000	863,000	358,000	1,594,000	834,000
All other articles	58,746,000	61,042,000	61,878,000	66,544,000	70,333,000
Total	321,643,000	345,141,000	348,500,000	371,589,000	398,452,000

FOREIGN TRADE OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IN FOREIGN TRADE OF BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA, 1908 AND 1913.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1908	1913	1908	1913
Total trade	$24,702,000	$40,741,000	$22,117,000	$28,032,000
Principal articles imported:				
Flour	2,677,000	3,623,000	73,000	26,000
Clothing and millinery	1,791,000	3,008,000	347,000	843,000
Wares of iron and steel	1,356,000	2,396,000	755,000	378,000
Coffee	1,316,000	1,993,000	16,000	34,000
Leather, and manufactures of	803,000	1,504,000	99,000	207,000
Cotton fabrics	780,000	1,481,000	40,000	31,000
Corn	1,690,000	1,418,000	217,000	214,000
Cotton, raw; wadding; yarn	670,000	1,039,000	29,000	23,000
Sugar, refined	643,000	1,017,000	23,000	13,000
Machinery	895,000	1,011,000	28,000	59,000
Railway and tramway cars	521,000	910,000	1,000	6,000
Distilled liquors	436,000	749,000	214,000	168,000
Wine	267,000	719,000	59,000	187,000
Horses	259,000	642,000	341,000	317,000
Explosives	339,000	606,000	35,000	91,000
Principal articles exported:				
Wood, sawn	31,000	47,000	4,908,000	5,000,000
Plums, dried	1,000	7,000	1,230,000	2,256,000
Oxen	168,000	1,204,000	1,470,000	1,895,000
Hides and skins	68,000	160,000	630,000	1,410,000
Wood, rough or hewn	7,000	23,000	693,000	928,000
Cows	80,000	349,000	392,000	849,000
Iron and steel, semimanufactured	323,000	319,000	741,000	700,000
Iron, pig and scrap	69,000	126,000	438,000	626,000
Plum jam	2,000	3,000	243,000	536,000
Calcium carbide	4,000	9,000	391,000	476,000
Eggs	4,000	8,000	284,000	455,000
Soda	6,000	9,000	621,000	424,000
Sheep	4,000	10,000	297,000	408,000
Coal and peat	59,000	58,000	262,000	389,000
Meats	102,000	192,000	251,000	385,000

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EXPORTS FROM BOHEMIA TO THE UNITED STATES.

Declared Exports from Bohemia to the United States, 1909 to 1913.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Animals: Partridges and pheasants			$2,851	$3,024	$6,439
Art works		$5,859	9,060	7,110	9,370
Beads, and bead fringes	$194,934	127,070	256,899	235,263	331,081
Breadstuffs: Rice, granulated			37,232	41,698	28,952
Buttons	390,006	133,201	121,078	392,649	705,111
Chalk, billiard				5,508	5,500
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, etc.:					
Acids	24,924				
Albumen			2,061		
Alum			1,758		
Barium chloride	36,370	23,943	23,587	12,737	31,230
Glycerin			3,595		
Lupulin	914	3,666	1,753	3,426	5,467
Potassium carbonate	64,699	7,564	36,905	60,246	130,057
Potassium permanganate	21,561	7,295	13,565	5,391	5,545
Salts, mineral	18,887	30,525	41,662	43,904	37,860
China clay			1,484	1,017	352
Clocks	427	4,249	8,847	1,622	3,291
Coffee substitutes				4,255	6,818
Cotton, and manufactures of:					
Cotton goods, n. e. s	97,849	102,027	67,897	104,715	91,591
Embroidery		9,805	23,981	26,492	26,716
Gloves, knitted				5,915	1,108
Tinsel thread		3,114	7,978	4,451	
Earthen and china ware	779,800	928,524	791,824	731,123	745,560
Feathers and artificial flowers:					
Feathers				8,341	
Flowers and leaves, artificial	159,267	104,691	61,764	82,197	70,348
Felt, piano				1,186	2,262
Fibers, vegetable, and manufactures of:					
Linen goods	568,606	452,205	456,361	440,298	518,065
Fruits, dried	7,497	7,595	861	1,362	
Furs				9,710	13,957
Gelatin				10,465	26,932
Glass and glassware:					
Bottles, siphon	60,364	101,431	89,215	101,757	86,069
Glassware, chemical		10,604	15,111	15,180	16,218
Glassware, cut, decorated	387,568	399,856	427,127	453,670	515,680
Lenses					341
Glue, and glue stock	16,871	20,937	8,084	2,845	12,739
Gold and silver manufactures, including jewelry	937,480	679,461	421,056	304,292	251,831
Hair, and manufactures of:					
Goat hair					1,734
Human hair and hair nets	97,466	416,169	147,316	186,438	132,239
Hats, woolen				21,793	3,171
Heckles and carding brushes			1,758	366	
Hides and skins			12,078	151,541	62,854
Hops	756,243	926,906	1,051,248	1,339,817	1,436,539
Household effects				2,832	
Instruments, scientific			5,404	4,748	
Iron and steel, and manufactures of:					
Cutlery	24,864	39,669	33,035	21,669	28,033
Dress fasteners					138,213
Machinery			2,406	6,364	1,058
Needles	29,907	14,997	19,837	23,766	22,814
Steel tubing				8,006	6,883
Tin and iron ware, enameled	22,070	18,713	26,995	24,165	20,133
Tool steel	26,759	63,233	52,862	86,184	72,996
Lamps and chandeliers	69,870	121,965	123,585	102,356	109,687
Leather, and manufactures of:					
Glove leather	10,556				2,638
Gloves	233,076	270,127	169,163	140,486	215,728
Meat and dairy products:					
Hams			2,343		3,210
Tallow				2,354	
Metals, n. e. s., and manufactures of:					
Bottle caps				5,517	6,683
Metal capsules	37,290	40,613	45,081	44,449	55,206
Metal goods, n. e. s	7,925	12,360	13,501	11,434	13,105
Musical instruments	154,110	149,255	158,353	173,457	200,116
Oil, sod	12,822	13,478	13,290	6,604	5,677
Paints and colors:					
Enamel paints	9,178	7,528	5,330	4,533	5,257
Uranium colors				1,336	521
Zinc oxide	16,354	15,244	12,273	9,795	18,194

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DECLARED EXPORTS FROM BOHEMIA TO THE UNITED STATES, 1909 TO 1913—Contd.

Articles.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
Paper, and manufactures of:					
Books	$91,498	$124,894	$152,069	$135,212	$131 906
Paper and paper goods, n. e. s.	33,052	30,052	25,416	38,180	37,446
Souvenir postal cards	.....	.....	2,813	1,905	.....
Paraffin	.....	60,430	37,524	65,335	32,142
Perfumery and toilet articles:					
Toilet soap	.....	.....	2,104	.....	.....
Tooth paste	.....	.....	.....	445	.....
Plants, bulbs, etc.: Cycas leaves	.....	.....	.....	.....	389
Plumbago or graphite	.....	.....	.....	2,054	2,037
Precious and semiprecious stones, and imitations of	562,611	774,385	546,123	535,970	543,036
Rennet	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,188
Seeds:					
Clover	5,266	129,112	250,829	482,793	98,840
Sugar beet	29,772	32,849	40,329	73,932	92,680
Silk and silk fabrics	.....	.....	.....	.....	498
Spirits, wines, malt liquors, and other beverages:					
Beer	897,497	871,042	888,348	965,910	1,021,291
Wine	.....	.....	.....	1,719	.....
Mineral waters	23,158	18,637	17,307	19,514	10,716
Straw and grass, and manufactures of:					
Sparterie	36,220	35,315	25,229	21,078	23,566
Sugar, refined	.....	.....	.....	2,093	2,005
Talcum	14,230	5,768	930	.....	.....
Textile fabrics, n. e. s.:					
Dress goods	2,872	3,646	155	.....	.....
Dresses	3,258	5,185	6,483	1,673	2,669
Laces and lace goods	4,354	4,384	1,399	7,588	6,757
Shirts, collars, cuffs	.....	.....	9,933	9,118	11,033
Trimmings	9,002	19,712	.....	1,750	335
Wearing apparel	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,050
Toys	25,282	53,024	53,927	51,661	85,847
Vegetables:					
Beans	318,308	126,223	36,049	60,388	9,409
Mushrooms, dried	.....	.....	.....	5,441	4,486
Peas	.....	.....	.....	4,775	.....
Wood, and manufactures of:					
Furniture of bent wood	33,519	23,546	29,619	29,331	25,821
Woodenware, carved	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,945
Wool, and manufactures of:					
Astrakhan, imitation	.....	.....	3,164	12,322	22,419
Carpet wool	134,546	63,262	6,274	72,817	14,405
Blankets	6,421	8,304	11,453	4,651	13,053
Carpets and rugs	88,581	89,166	77,100	88,035	88,026
Shawls	.....	.....	4,573	5,864	1,414
Woolen goods, n. e. s.	165,150	129,759	72,432	40,092	103,638
All other articles	468,789	150,210	95,508	65,383	57,817
Total	8,229,900	8,032,784	7,226,544	8,297,888	8,704,076

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GENERAL STATISTICS FOR AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

AREA AND POPULATION OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, DECEMBER 31, 1910.

Countries.	Area.	Population.	Population per square mile.
	Sq. miles.		
Bohemia	20,056	6,770,000	338
Moravia	8,580	2,622,000	306
Silesia	1,987	757,000	381
Bohemian countries	30,623	10,149,000	331
Galicia	30,309	8,026,000	265
Bukovina	4,031	800,000	198
Carpathian countries	34,340	8,826,000	257
Lower Austria	7,654	3,532,000	461
Upper Austria	4,626	853,000	184
Salzburg	2,762	215,000	78
Tyrol	10,302	947,000	92
Vorarlberg	1,005	145,000	145
Styria	8,658	1,444,000	167
Carinthia	3,987	396,000	99
Alpine countries	38,994	7,532,000	193
Carniola	3,843	526,000	137
Trieste	37	229,000	6,203
Gorizia and Gradisca	1,127	261,000	231
Istria	1,914	403,000	211
Dalmatia	4,954	646,000	130
Carso countries	11,875	2,065,000	174
Austria	115,832	28,572,000	247
Hungary proper	109,216	18,264,000	167
Croatia-Slavonia	16,425	2,622,000	160
Hungary	125,641	20,886,000	166
Bosnia and Herzegovina	19,768	1,898,000	96
The Monarchy	261,241	51,356,000	197

POPULATION OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO "LANGUAGE OF INTERCOURSE," CENSUS OF 1910.

Nationalities.	Austria.	Hungary.	Bosnia and Herzegovina.	Total.
Čechoslovák	6,436,000	2,032,000	7,000	8,475,000
Polish	4,968,000	41,000	11,000	5,020,000
Russian	3,519,000	473,000	7,000	3,999,000
Yugoslav	2,036,000	3,033,000	1,826,000	6,895,000
Total Slav	16,959,000	5,579,000	1,851,000	24,389,000
German	9,950,000	2,037,000	23,000	12,010,000
Magyar	11,000	10,050,000	7,000	10,068,000
Roumanian	275,000	2,949,000	1,000	3,225,000
Italian	769,000	33,000	2,000	804,000
Other	[a] 608,000	238,000	14,000	860,000
Total	28,572,000	20,886,000	1,898,000	51,356,000

[a] Aliens.

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Cities Having 30,000 or More Inhabitants in 1910.

Cities.	Population.	Cities.	Population.
BOHEMIAN COUNTRIES.		HUNGARY PROPER.	
Prague	224,000	Budapest	710,000
Brno (Brunn)	126,000	Szeged	78,000
Pilsen	80,000	Temesvar	71,000
Vinohrady	77,000	Pozsony (Pressburg)	68,000
Zizkov	72,000	Nagy-Varad	64,000
Smichov	52,000	Arad	63,000
Budejovice (Budweis)	45,000	Kolozsvar	59,000
Usti (Aussig)	39,000	Ujpest	55,000
Moravska Ostrava	37,000	Debreczen	54,000
Liberec (Reichenberg)	36,000	Miskolcz	50,000
Prostejov	31,000	Szabadka	48,000
Opava (Troppau)	31,000	Gyor (Raab)	44,000
CARPATHIAN COUNTRIES.		Pecs	44,000
Lwow (Lemberg)	206,000	Kassa	43,000
Cracow	152,000	Hodmezo-Vasarhely	38,000
Czernowitz	87,000	Brasso	37,000
Przemysl	54,000	Kecskemet	35,000
Kolomyja	43,000	Nagyszeben	33,000
Tarnow	37,000	Ujvidek	31,000
Drohobycz	35,000	Szekesfehervar	31,000
Tarnopol	34,000	Zombor	31,000
Stanislawow	34,000	Szombathely	30,000
Stryj	33,000	Sopron	30,000
ALPINE COUNTRIES.		Zenta	30,000
Vienna	2,031,000	CROATIA-SLAVONIA.	
Graz	152,000	Zagreb (Agram)	79,000
Linz	68,000	Rjeka (Fiume)	32,000
Innsbruck	53,000	Osjek (Eszek)	31,000
Salzburg	36,000	BOSNIA.	
Wiener Neustadt	33,000	Sarajevo	52,000
Trient	30,000		
CARSO COUNTRIES.			
Trieste	162,000		
Pola	58,000		
Ljubljana (Laibach)	42,000		
Gorizia	31,000		

GENERAL STATISTICS FOR AUSTRIA.

Area of Principal Crops in Austria, 1901 to 1914.

[1 hectare=2.47 acres.]

Years.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Corn.	Potatoes.	Sugar beets.
	Hectares.	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*
1901	1,069,729	1,810,736	1,210,777	1,870,613	332,141	1,134,687	252,602
1906	1,161,349	2,020,516	1,177,296	1,833,665	342,961	1,314,116	239,050
1910	1,213,579	2,060,980	1,101,525	1,833,018	311,773	1,242,083	253,731
1911	1,215,090	2,021,345	1,096,677	1,878,058	302,813	1,257,787	249,097
1912	1,260,317	2,032,138	1,065,903	1,866,931	304,184	1,251,498	264,456
1913	1,212,892	1,963,602	1,092,131	1,904,718	285,531	1,275,651	254,639
1914[a]	671,930	1,269,792	699,774	1,147,139	189,668	717,767	242,646

Yield of Principal Crops in Austria, 1901 to 1914.

[1 metric ton=2,204.6 pounds.]

Years.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Corn.	Potatoes.	Sugar beets.
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
1901	1,198,226	1,918,156	1,460,736	1,715,537	445,422	11,896,193	6,546,434
1906	1,585,434	2,520,956	1,655,239	2,243,309	461,719	13,996,648	6,372,387
1910	1,567,331	2,767,192	1,472,215	2,063,156	441,678	13,366,403	7,061,815
1911	1,602,639	2,644,657	1,620,181	2,270,064	304,134	11,604,990	4,249,768
1912	1,895,264	2,974,803	1,706,576	2,430,100	388,506	12,541,610	7,923,770
1913	1,622,755	2,704,471	1,750,157	2,677,377	337,965	11,551,942	6,961,987
1914[a]	1,034,857	1,893,808	1,272,795	1,917,643	273,608	7,758,428	6,774,849

[a] Exclusive of Galicia and Bukovina.

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DOMESTIC ANIMALS IN AUSTRIA, 1900 AND 1910.

Animals.	1900	1910
Horses	1,716,468	1,882,96
Cattle	9,511,170	9,140,68
Swine	4,682,654	6,432,68
Sheep	2,621,026	2,426,31
Goats	1,019,684	1,286,78

LENGTH OF AUSTRIAN RAILROADS, 1837 TO 1913.

[1 kilometer = 0.621 miles.]

Years.	Kilometers.	Years.	Kilometers.
1837	14	1900	19,39
1840	144	1902	19,98
1850	1,357	1903	20,19
1860	2,927	1910	22,68
1870	6,112	1911	22,70
1880	11,429	1912	22,89
1890	15,273	1913	23,28

STATISTICS OF AUSTRIAN RAILROADS, 1912.

Items.	Government railroads.	Private railroads.
Length of line.....miles..	11,776	2,440
Capital invested.....1,000 dollars..	1,328,228	395,85
Operating revenue.....dollars..	181,959,561	48,413,54
Operating expenditure.....do....	138,512,215	33,394,95
Locomotives.....number..	6,020	1,474
Tenders.....do....	4,694	1,20
Passenger cars.....do....	11,578	3,18
Freight cars.....do....	111,895	36,66
Mail cars.....do....	744	6
Motor cars.....do....	39	17
Snow plows.....do....	124	13
Officials and employees.....do....	225,608	54,61
Passengers carried.....do....	217,287,817	73,563,16
Passenger mileage.....1,000 miles..	4,050,671	1,119,90
Freight carried.....tons..	106,171,547	50,523,44
Freight mileage.....1,000 ton-miles..	8,473,520	2,077,50

NOTE.—Figures for Government railroads include data for private railroads operated by the Government.

MINERAL PRODUCTION OF AUSTRIA, 1909 TO 1913.

Minerals.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
Coal	13,713,042	13,773,985	14,379,817	15,797,890	16,459,88
Brown coal	26,043,716	25,132,855	25,265,334	26,283,690	27,378,33
Metallic ores:					
Iron	2,490,277	2,627,583	2,765,815	2,926,686	3,039,32
Gold	29,709	31,744	29,647	30,192	35,99
Silver	21,102	23,629	24,143	21,793	19,93
Mercury	92,337	100,899	111,018	117,780	130,60
Copper	11,826	8,005	10,974	17,354	16,35
Lead	20,550	22,841	23,845	27,951	25,75
Uranium	8	7	6	11	1
Zinc	33,955	34,636	32,166	34,675	34,22
Tin	36	37	943	606	92
Antimony	450	225	270	4,520	1,27
Wolfram	34	40	45	66	5
Manganese	18,045	15,694	15,954	12,471	16,54
Pyrites	12,725	15,840	15,805	13,996	10,56
Graphite	40,710	33,131	41,599	45,375	49,45
Asphalt rock	2,975	1,066	1,740	4,234	3,02
Salt (secondary product)	359,801	345,629	342,731	365,789	337,56
Petroleum	2,086,341	1,766,018	1,487,842	1,144,133	.....
Ozokerite	2,115	2,171	1,940	1,683	.....

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SHIPPING: NUMBER TONNAGE AND CREWS OF AUSTRIAN SEAGOING SHIPS, END OF 1910.

Classes of vessels.	Number.	Net tonnage.	Crews.
Steamers:			
In oversea traffic	152	345,587	4,477
In coastwise traffic—			
Long distance	25	7,010	296
Other	182	15,307	1,216
Total, steamers	359	367,904	5,989
Sailing vessels:			
In oversea traffic	1	743	12
In coastwise traffic—			
Long distance	3	387	15
Other	1,444	18,477	3,379
Fishing barks	5,448	11,129	18,487
Registered barks and lighters	8,218	15,658	14,159
Total sailing vessels	15,114	46,394	36,052
Total, all vessels	15,473	414,298	42,041

NOTE.—In 1913 Austria had 175 steamers in oversea traffic, of 443,086 net tons, with crews numbering 5,502, and 23 steamers of 8,064 net tons and 285 men, in the long-distance coastwise traffic. Other data not available.

SHIPPING: NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED AT AUSTRIAN PORTS IN 1913.

Countries of origin or destination.	Entered.				Cleared.			
	All ships.		With cargoes only.		All ships.		With cargoes only.	
	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.
Coastwise traffic (Austria-Hungary)	161,849	22,936,003	147,918	21,414,701	160,891	22,585,031	146,735	20,099,682
OVERSEA TRAFFIC (FOREIGN TRADE).								
Europe:								
Belgium	1	1,741	1	1,741	1	2,460	1	2,460
Bulgaria	1	1,419	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Crete	5	1,795	5	1,795	12	4,489	12	4,489
Cyprus	55	112,085	55	112,085	52	106,973	52	106,973
France	82	88,024	75	73,395	102	107,472	88	81,409
Germany	46	80,240	44	70,258	43	77,596	35	53,653
Greece	626	316,692	559	292,098	610	336,927	539	284,076
Italy	9,306	1,668,183	4,619	1,016,988	10,010	1,765,253	7,678	1,435,677
Malta	12	46,709	12	46,709	3	4,078	1	1,249
Montenegro	37	4,363	24	2,370	38	5,116	25	4,495
Netherlands	33	72,444	30	67,935	14	28,620	11	17,898
Norway	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1,850	1	1,850
Portugal	.....	.....	.....	.....	9	14,774	9	14,774
Roumania	47	98,331	47	98,331	54	115,732	45	102,900
Russia	113	221,989	113	221,989	171	359,506	120	244,787
Spain	77	78,301	76	76,591	76	77,230	67	59,618
Turkey	477	180,816	411	157,191	667	506,709	505	284,348
United Kingdom	300	638,891	293	603,335	107	186,328	71	102,274
America:								
Argentina	44	151,169	44	151,169	50	170,709	50	170,709
Brazil	11	20,343	11	20,343	18	31,744	18	31,744
Canada	14	75,186	14	75,186	15	79,945	15	79,945
United States	120	541,958	120	541,958	133	633,935	116	522,872
Uruguay	1	1,920	1	1,920	.....	.....	.....	.....
West Indies	1	2,821	1	2,821	1	2,129	.....	.....
Asia:								
China	12	32,218	12	32,218	13	35,660	13	35,660
East Indies, British	78	219,493	78	219,493	62	187,974	44	137,728
East Indies, Portuguese	1	2,655	1	2,655	.....	.....	.....	.....
Japan	12	46,709	12	46,709	16	63,383	15	59,368
Siam	1	1,831	1	1,831	.....	.....	.....	.....

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SHIPPING: NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED AT AUSTRIAN PORTS IN 1913—Continued.

Countries of origin or destination.	Entered.				Cleared.			
	All ships.		With cargoes only.		All ships.		With cargoes only.	
	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.
OVERSEA TRAFFIC (FOREIGN TRADE)—con.								
Oceania:								
Australia	8	16,788	8	16,788	12	25,254	12	25,254
Philippines	1	2,908	1	2,908				
Africa:								
Algeria	25	38,376	25	38,376	17	33,539	2	1,722
Canary Islands					2	2,789		
Egypt	74	177,287	68	172,581	103	239,854	95	223,642
Eritrea					2	5,695	2	5,695
Morocco	27	25,517	27	25,517	27	25,520	26	24,517
Tripoli	12	8,192	11	6,959	37	23,347	36	21,398
Tunis	12	10,441	9	5,778	8	9,491	4	4,594
Total oversea traffic	11,662	4,941,719	6,798	4,161,905	12,486	5,272,081	9,708	5,148,073
Total traffic, 1913	173,511	27,877,722	154,716	25,576,606	173,377	27,857,112	156,443	25,247,751
1912	167,122	25,569,882	152,103	23,619,692	167,113	25,566,314	148,368	23,511,496
1911	167,209	24,887,721	151,408	23,124,419	167,483	24,836,706	148,250	22,870,077
1910	166,061	24,583,240	149,870	22,697,415	166,173	24,498,021	147,838	22,690,253
1909	161,995	23,115,636	146,683	21,003,377	162,112	23,104,634	145,629	21,333,009

PERSONS IN AUSTRIA ENGAGED IN SPECIFIED OCCUPATIONS, CENSUS YEAR 1910.

Occupations.	Total.	Wage workers (including apprentices and day laborers).		
		Male.	Female.	Total.
CLASS A.				
Agriculture and forestry	8,502,983	1,023,351	929,415	1,952,766
Agriculture, horticulture, and the animal industries	8,401,379	941,963	925,609	1,867,572
Forestry, the chase	95,932	79,400	3,685	83,085
The fisheries	5,672	1,988	121	2,109
CLASS B.				
Mining and manufacturing	3,627,001	2,137,659	669,510	2,807,169
Mining and metallurgy	195,422	179,540	7,828	187,368
Stones and earths	226,486	163,244	39,576	202,820
Metals	346,959	266,460	19,143	285,603
Machinery	195,461	146,881	6,714	153,595
Chemicals	55,938	28,082	12,246	40,328
Light, power, and water works	15,933	12,133	570	12,703
Building trades	465,609	389,970	14,146	404,116
Polygraphic industries	52,490	33,889	9,071	42,960
Textiles	518,917	199,852	233,605	433,457
Paper and leather	113,024	67,642	24,439	92,081
Manufactures of wood, horn, bone, india rubber	290,976	195,542	21,452	216,994
Food, beverages, tobacco	357,675	192,826	61,599	254,425
Clothing, cleaning, and dyeing	740,663	237,439	196,473	433,912
Industries not specified	50,448	24,159	22,648	46,807
CLASS C.				
Trade and transportation	1,577,915	557,163	135,100	692,263
Trade in merchandise	573,490	130,225	42,066	172,291
Banking and insurance	51,937	8,353	593	8,946
Railways	219,502	188,522	2,737	191,259
Other land and water transportation	177,607	111,475	2,797	114,272
Other trade and transportation establishments	40,106	8,302	1,103	9,405
Hotels and inns	258,242	55,484	59,379	114,863
Independent house service	257,031	54,802	26,425	81,227
CLASS D.				
Public service, professions, etc	2,310,577	357,828	19,360	377,188
Military service	246,902	225,816		225,816
Public officials	344,589	123,799	15,803	139,602
Education	131,687	2,403	1,969	4,372
Other professions	46,959	5,810	1,588	7,398
Persons living on income or stipends	806,153			
Persons living in institutions or preparing for a vocation	432,015			
Persons of unknown occupation, or unemployed	302,272			
Total	16,018,476	4,076,001	1,753,385	5,829,386

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PERSONS IN AUSTRIA INSURED AGAINST INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS, 1911.

Industrial groups.	Number of establishments at end of year.	Average number of persons insured.				Wages (as computed).
		Officials of establishments.	Wage workers.		Total.	
			Adults.	Children.		
						Dollars.
Agriculture, forestry, flour mills	495,470	6,771	1,231,491	379,120	1,617,382	7,705,130
Railways, land and water transportation	15,970	143,098	260,691	3,298	407,087	105,860,359
Metallurgy	546	1,498	42,532	1,086	45,116	10,886,981
Mines and quarries, industries of earths and stones; glass works	20,308	4,740	231,524	9,005	245,269	34,597,057
Metal industries	4,641	3,468	109,465	13,114	126,047	25,777,285
Machinery, instruments and apparatus	2,842	7,692	127,687	16,973	152,352	38,770,697
Chemicals	968	1,820	32,378	810	35,008	6,825,046
Oils, fats, heating and lighting	1,657	2,310	30,864	446	33,620	7,594,265
Textiles	4,076	9,672	335,216	12,553	357,441	52,557,540
Paper, leather, india rubber, celluloid	2,074	2,519	74,779	3,763	81,061	14,322,897
Manufactures of wood, horn, meerschaum, etc	15,675	3,063	111,473	5,479	120,015	17,084,654
Foods, beverages, tobacco	9,444	9,003	178,349	7,586	194,938	34,320,006
Clothing, laundries, cleaning and dyeing	2,075	2,211	52,371	2,281	56,863	9,534,017
Building trades	37,034	7,584	441,971	35,023	484,578	65,401,554
Polygraphic trades	1,455	2,600	41,426	4,852	48,878	12,052,755
Other industries	1,530	3,236	16,320	670	20,226	3,992,935
Total:						
1911	615,765	211,285	3,318,537	496,059	4,025,881	447,283,178
1910	564,266	202,120	3,140,532	484,874	3,827,526	414,741,611
1909	545,556	195,059	3,051,876	462,098	3,709,033	387,318,513
Total, exclusive of agriculture:						
1911	132,878	205,490	2,111,837	118,923	2,436,250	443,010,238
1910	126,539	196,614	2,030,131	112,325	2,339,070	411,104,983
1909	123,006	189,826	1,970,032	105,766	2,265,624	383,748,326

NOTE.—The total number of working days in 1911 was 634,538,662, and the number of the insured was reckoned as equivalent to 2,115,115 persons working 300 days in the year.

GENERAL STATISTICS FOR HUNGARY.

AREA OF PRINCIPAL CROPS IN HUNGARY.

Years.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Corn.	Potatoes.	Sugar beets.
	Hectares.	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*	*Hectares.*
1901	3,317,105	1,131,118	1,012,516	982,220	2,196,515	506,051	90,586
1906	3,555,333	1,133,345	1,053,407	1,037,144	2,312,493	563,154	109,796
1910	3,793,999	1,137,576	1,163,090	1,165,995	2,830,398	688,091	117,760
1911	3,707,784	1,106,995	1,171,271	1,173,551	2,878,832	697,733	142,959
1912	3,872,043	1,183,199	1,115,712	1,095,950	2,860,440	698,389	175,898
1913	3,433,206	1,079,904	1,168,446	1,166,957	2,918,767	691,051	182,088
1914	3,489,724	1,117,205	1,123,789	1,074,629	2,434,252	612,449	177,744
1915	3,320,400	1,050,674	1,131,554	1,067,257	2,506,772	638,069	107,492

YIELD OF PRINCIPAL CROPS IN HUNGARY.

Years.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Corn.	Potatoes.	Sugar beets.
	Metric tons.	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*	*Metric tons.*
1901	3,372,999	1,108,946	1,090,171	988,220	3,235,830	4,313,502	1,917,658
1906	5,372,604	1,368,627	1,518,561	1,273,435	4,138,487	4,873,846	2,649,280
1910	4,929,726	1,315,523	1,213,436	1,084,512	5,422,940	5,591,875	2,922,236
1911	5,173,092	1,278,274	1,659,861	1,381,988	4,100,490	5,047,099	2,987,593
1912	5,025,175	1,428,557	1,570,214	1,165,641	5,099,624	5,973,478	4,839,710
1913	4,578,979	1,327,359	1,738,002	1,448,703	4,624,808	4,875,256	4,775,838
1914	2,864,109	1,077,266	1,420,991	1,256,094	4,376,882	5,314,326	4,014,305
1915	4,120,609	1,154,989	1,208,621	1,162,895	4,586,000	5,697,800	2,488,500

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Domestic Animals in Hungary.

	1895	1911
Horses	2,208,457	2,251,[illegible]
Cattle	6,735,265	7,223,[illegible]
Swine	7,230,243	7,889,[illegible]
Sheep	8,122,682	8,548,[illegible]
Goats	308,810	439,[illegible]

Length of Hungarian Railroads, 1846 to 1913.

[1 kilometer=0.621 mile.]

Years.	Kilometers.	Years.	Kilometers.
1846	35	1902	[illegible]
1850	222	1903	[illegible]
1860	1,616	1910	[illegible]
1870	3,477	1911	[illegible]
1880	7,078	1912	[illegible]
1890	11,246	1913	[illegible]
1900	17,101		

Statistics of Hungarian Railroads, 1912.

Items.	Government railroads.	Private railroads.
Length of line ..... miles..	11,224	2,[illegible]
Capital invested ..... 1,000 dollars..	809,324	140,[illegible]
Operating revenue ..... dollars..	99,071,105	16,609,[illegible]
Operating expenditure ..... do....	63,933,647	9,977,[illegible]
Locomotives ..... number..	3,616	[illegible]
Tenders ..... do....	2,471	[illegible]
Passenger cars ..... do....	7,674	1,[illegible]
Freight cars ..... do....	85,061	14,[illegible]
Mail cars ..... do....	214	[illegible]
Motor cars ..... do....		
Snow plows ..... do....		
Officials and employees ..... do....	126,002	21,[illegible]
Passengers carried ..... do....	119,553,000	44,455,[illegible]
Passenger mileage ..... 1,000 miles..	2,624,421	516,[illegible]
Freight carried ..... tons..	65,568,781	16,602,[illegible]
Freight mileage ..... 1,000 ton-miles..	5,227,712	675,[illegible]

NOTE.—Figures for Government railroads include data for private railroads operated by the Government.

Shipping: Number, Tonnage, and Crews of Hungarian Seagoing Ships, End of 1910.

Classes of vessels.	Number.	Net tonnage.	Crews.
Steamers:			
In oversea traffic	59	102,413	1,[illegible]
In coastwise traffic—			
Long distance			
Other	55	7,418	[illegible]
Total steamers	114	109,831	1,[illegible]
Sailing vessels—			
In oversea traffic			
In coastwise traffic—			
Long distance	1	62	[illegible]
Other	87	1,333	[illegible]
Fishing barks	56	104	[illegible]
Registered barks and lighters	197	306	[illegible]
Total sailing vessels	341	1,805	[illegible]
Total all vessels	455	111,636	2,[illegible]

NOTE.—In 1913 Hungary had a total of 545 ships, of 144,433 net tons, with crews numbering 3,217.

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SHIPPING: NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED AT HUNGARIAN (CROATIAN) PORTS IN 1912.

Countries of origin or destination.	Entered.				Cleared.			
	All ships.		With cargoes only.		All ships.		With cargoes only.	
	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.	Number.	Net tons.
COASTWISE TRAFFIC.								
Austria	6,452	803,419	6,035	659,079	6,425	805,091	5,872	640,942
Hungary	14,864	1,356,143	12,953	1,180,093	14,774	1,347,654	14,513	1,331,036
Total coastwise traffic	21,316	2,159,562	18,988	1,839,172	21,199	2,152,745	20,385	1,971,978
OVERSEA TRAFFIC (FOREIGN TRADE).								
Europe:								
France	67	68,306	64	64,219	87	95,439	85	89,837
Germany	40	58,381	40	58,381	49	71,766	43	63,728
Greece	35	13,559	32	11,118	45	34,477	33	12,403
Italy	1,458	349,663	1,164	288,964	1,529	344,375	1,498	323,567
Netherlands	11	18,738	8	14,152	8	13,561	7	11,331
Roumania	13	19,746	13	19,746	6	14,972	1	2,358
Spain	63	59,347	61	54,866	55	50,255	52	46,046
Turkey in Europe	111	170,478	100	151,020	125	205,503	110	173,260
United Kingdom	136	250,661	123	226,877	106	176,580	101	166,314
Other Europe	27	12,200	21	7,206	55	29,816	46	15,041
America:								
Argentina	24	58,462	24	58,462	10	31,656	10	31,656
Brazil	13	21,277	13	21,277	12	20,610	12	20,610
United States	42	264,282	42	264,282	53	307,008	53	307,008
Asia:								
British East Indies	58	154,280	56	148,946	30	82,506	21	58,509
Japan	11	43,502	9	35,313	13	52,396	12	47,517
Turkey in Asia	37	71,686	28	56,458	43	74,391	42	72,577
Oceania: Australia	7	14,692	5	10,722	9	18,803	8	16,358
Africa:								
Algeria	8	6,211	8	6,211	8	4,534	7	2,583
Egypt	6	11,426	3	4,108	10	18,510	5	8,788
Italian possessions					6	17,411	6	17,411
Morocco	24	21,895	24	21,895	26	24,008	26	24,008
Tripoli	6	4,848			56	40,447	56	40,447
Tunis	29	20,214	28	19,869	11	10,623	5	2,728
Other countries	7	13,647	7	13,647	6	9,229	6	9,229
Total oversea traffic	2,233	1,720,501	1,874	1,558,084	2,358	1,748,876	2,245	1,563,314
Total traffic	**23,549**	**3,887,063**	**20,862**	**3,397,256**	**23,557**	**3,901,621**	**22,630**	**3,535,292**

AUSTRIA AND BOHEMIA: A STATISTICAL COMPARISON.

Items.	Unit.	All Austria.	Bohemian countries.	
			Total.	Per cent.
Area	Square mile	115,832	30,623	26.4
Population, census of 1910	Number	28,571,934	10,148,768	35.5
Marriages, 1912	do	212,187	76,598	36.1
Births, exclusive of stillbirths, 1912	do	903,407	283,527	31.4
Deaths, 1912	do	592,426	205,165	34.6
Yield of principal crops, 1913:				
Wheat	Bushel	59,626,025	25,211,499	42.3
Rye	do	106,470,289	56,032,228	52.6
Barley	do	80,384,058	52,058,413	64.8
Oats	do	184,456,408	96,481,175	52.3
Legumes	Metric ton	236,215	103,286	43.7
Rape and colza	do	13,832	6,345	45.9
Linseed	do	15,453	8,685	56.2
Flax fiber	do	22,261	13,619	61.2
Hops	do	8,665	6,639	76.6
Potatoes	Bushel	424,497,948	207,093,608	48.8
Chicory	Metric ton	154,198	149,464	96.9
Sugar beets	do	6,961,987	6,376,938	91.6
Fodder beets, first crop	do	3,861,515	1,725,909	44.7
Cabbage, first crop	do	992,448	470,500	47.4
Clover hay	do	4,263,682	2,031,302	47.6
Meadow hay	do	9,152,999	2,317,257	25.3
Forests, end of 1910	Acre	24,137,874	5,784,689	24.0

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AUSTRIA AND BOHEMIA: A STATISTICAL COMPARISON—Continued.

Items.	Unit.	All Austria.	Bohemian countries.	
			Total.	Per cent.
Domestic animals, Dec. 31, 1910:				
Horses	Number	1,802,848	423,167	23.5
Cattle	do	9,160,009	3,288,291	35.9
Hogs	do	6,432,080	1,790,545	27.8
Sheep	do	2,428,101	182,863	7.5
Goats	do	1,256,778	649,615	51.7
Poultry	do	35,981,129	14,238,722	39.6
Mines and quarries, output in 1913:				
Coal	Metric ton	16,459,889	14,271,408	86.7
Brown coal	do	27,378,332	23,017,096	84.1
Iron ore	do	3,039,324	988,831	32.5
Gold ore	do	35,994	35,994	100.0
Silver ore	do	19,937	19,937	100.0
Lead ore	do	25,751	68	.3
Uranium ore	do	11	11	100.0
Zinc ore	do	34,225	638	1.9
Tin ore	do	938	938	100.0
Antimony ore	do	1,270	20	1.6
Wolfram ore	do	52	52	100.0
Graphite	do	49,456	32,175	65.1
Metallurgy, production in 1913:				
Gold	Gram	283,587	272,760	96.2
Silver	Kilogram	54,433	48,063	88.3
Copper	Metric ton	3,684	999	27.1
Pig iron	do	1,757,864	1,041,147	59.2
Lead	do	22,312	3,833	17.2
Litharge	do	305	305	100.0
Tin	do	11	11	100.0
Uranium preparations	do	5	5	100.0
Sulphate of iron	do	40	40	100.0
Mineral paints	do	2,999	468	15.6
Coke	do	2,598,782	2,598,568	100.0
Coal briquets	do	445,901	438,638	98.4
Industrial census of June 3, 1902:				
Principal establishments	Number	1,000,111	424,930	42.5
Persons engaged	do	3,585,756	1,685,097	47.0
Home industries	do	357,019	201,700	56.5
Persons engaged	do	463,564	276,203	59.6
Number of persons engaged in gainful occupations, 1910	do	16,018,476	5,500,834	34.3
Agriculture and forestry	do	8,502,983	2,142,315	25.2
Mining and manufacturing	do	3,627,001	1,934,749	53.3
Trade and transportation	do	1,577,915	559,399	35.5
Public service, professions, etc	do	2,310,577	864,371	37.4
Factories, 1913	do	17,034	8,918	52.4
Steam boilers, 1912	do	40,268	23,846	59.2
Sugar industry, 1912-13:				
Sugar factories	Number	186	178	95.7
Horsepower of engines	do	113,560	103,165	90.8
Workmen employed	do	72,960	67,595	92.6
Sugar produced (polarizing 99.3 or higher)	Metric ton	1,107,053	1,050,410	94.9
Labor, 1912 (exclusive of railway employees and sailors):				
Sick-benefit funds	Number	3,341	2,087	62.5
Workmen insured	do	3,182,820	1,467,536	46.1
Consumers' cooperative societies	do	1,471	909	61.8
Sales in 1912 (1,258 societies)	Dollar	39,555,000	17,314,000	43.8
Roads, 1912	Mile	76,568	32,623	42.6
Waterways, 1913	do	4,058	889	21.9
Railways, 1913	do	14,280	5,951	41.7
Telegraph lines, 1913	Mile	25,332	7,929	31.3
Telegraph wires	do	98,580	27,528	27.9
Private savings banks, 1912	Number	684	364	53.2
Number of depositors	do	4,404,506	1,884,618	42.8
Amount of deposits	1,000 dollars	1,302,465	550,557	42.3
Societies	Number	94,508	43,337	42.1
Grammar schools, public	do	23,247	9,778	42.1
Children of school age	do	4,947,724	1,776,884	35.9
School attendance	do	4,471,393	1,703,603	38.1
Land tax	Dollar	10,399,000	4,850,000	46.6
Excise taxes	do	85,304,000	50,296,000	59.0
General trade tax	do	8,349,000	3,366,000	40.3

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BY

J. J. KRAL

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